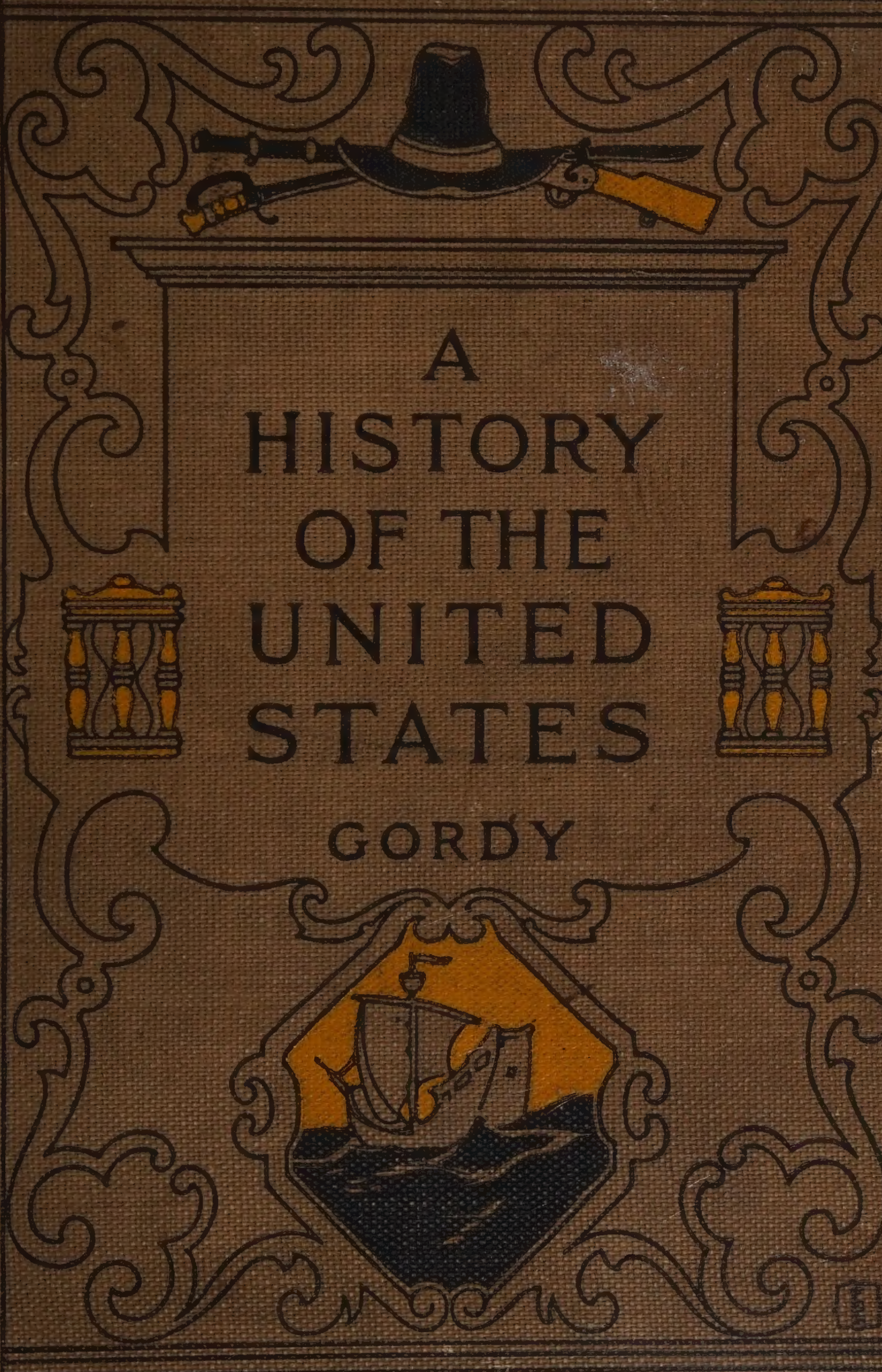


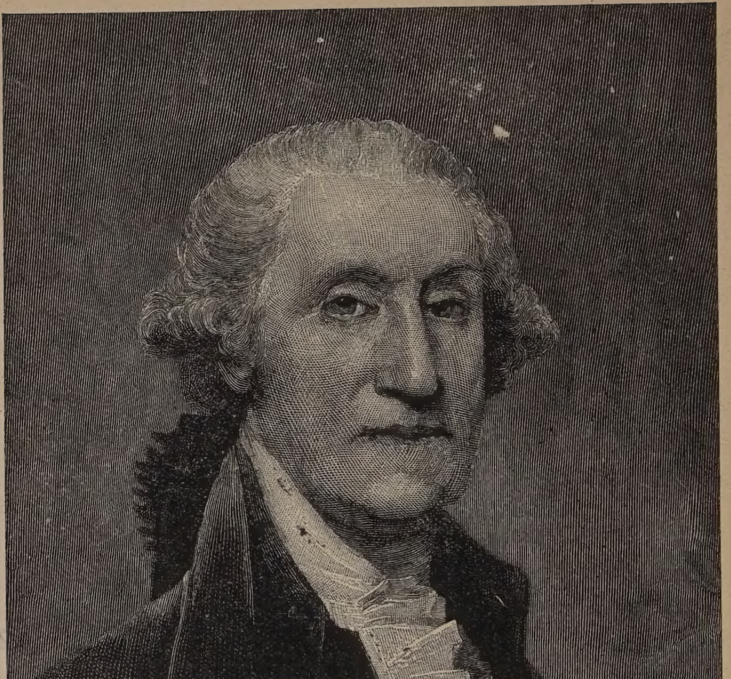
A HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

GORDY

Are you from Dixie
That old Gang of mine
Birth of the Blues.

Hugh Hutton
Lowell,
Indiana.

Hugh Hutton,
Lowell,
Indiana



G. Washington

A HISTORY OF
THE UNITED STATES
FOR SCHOOLS

BY

WILBUR F. GORDY

FORMERLY SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, SPRINGFIELD, MASS.; AUTHOR OF "ELEMENTARY HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES," "AMERICAN LEADERS AND HEROES," "AMERICAN BEGINNINGS IN EUROPE," "STORIES OF AMERICAN EXPLORERS," "COLONIAL DAYS," "STORIES OF EARLY AMERICAN HISTORY," "STORIES OF LATER AMERICAN HISTORY"

WITH MANY ILLUSTRATIONS AND MAPS

NEW EDITION

CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS
NEW YORK CHICAGO BOSTON

COPYRIGHT, 1898, 1899, 1904, 1910, 1911, 1913, 1914, 1916, BY
CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS

J

PRINTERS AND BINDERS
HAMMOND, INDIANA

To
I. H. G.

PREFACE

The function of both the writer and the teacher of history is to explain the meaning of human life as revealed in the records of the past. In the case of both the historian and the teacher much depends upon a nice discrimination in choosing typical facts, for their *nature* rather than their *number* should be the guiding principle. This is especially true in the teaching of history in grammar grades, where the purpose is not so much to acquire a considerable body of knowledge as to develop in the pupil an interest in history and a taste for historical reading. In this book care has been taken not only to select typical events but so to group them that their full value may be appreciated as causes or as results.

The reader is invited to examine briefly the plan of the book. After a short chapter on early discoveries follows an account of the struggle, on the part of the Spaniards, the English, the Dutch, and the French, for control in the New World. In accordance with the general purpose of selecting significant events, many romantic and interesting adventures have been omitted from the body of the text, in order to give more space to topics of greater importance. But enough has been told to explain the nature of the explorations, their objects, and methods, and the reasons for failure or success in planting colonies.

In the treatment of the English colonies, only typical ones are chosen and they are divided in three groups. Virginia and Maryland represent the Southern group; Massachusetts and Connecticut, the New England group; and New York and Pennsylvania, the Middle group.

A few things should be noted in connection with the treatment of the colonies. In the first place, the history of each group is brought down to 1689, a turning-point in American history. The pupil can thus study separately the three parallel streams of colonial history, without the inevitable and almost inextricable confusion which must attend a strictly chronological treatment of the thirteen colonies, whether taken up singly or all together. In the second place, emphasis is laid upon what is important; the selection of typical colonies and of typical events in the life of these colonies must, of course, give more space for intelligent and interesting treatment of illustrative facts. In the third place, certain definite characteristics of the people in any one of the groups can, by comparison and contrast, be distinctly brought out by this method of study.

Of course there is an elimination of some matter generally used in text-books. At the ends of chapters, however, may be found, in the "Notes," reference to the colonies not treated fully in the body of the text. The subject-matter of these "Notes" has been carefully selected and will, it is believed, supply nearly all that is needed in schools where the conditions require a special handling of the colony in question.

Up to 1689 there was little of the spirit of union among the colonies. To a great extent each went its own way. But after 1689, three sets of influences—Indian wars, troubles with the French, and difficulties with the royal and the proprietary governors—gradually brought the colonies into closer sympathy and prepared them for union. To make clear the working of these three sets of historic forces, the topics introducing them are given in the following order: "Life among the Indians" and "Indian Wars"; "French Explorations" and the "Last French War"; and "Life among the Colonies" and "Growth toward Union."

Special attention is called to the facts selected to explain the real meaning of the intercolonial struggle between the English and the French. Of the four Intercolonial Wars, the only one worthy of study in grammar schools is the Last French War. By omitting the other three, space is gained for a more complete discussion of the one that had altogether the most important bearing upon American history. If the pupil thoroughly studies this war he will know the meaning of the struggle between England and France for control in America.

In the Revolution, as in all other wars, causes and results are emphasized rather than campaigns and battles; military details are avoided, only a few significant battles being given to enable the pupil to understand the character of the fighting. The pertinent question here as elsewhere is: Does the fact serve to give the pupil clear ideas of the past as an interpreter of the present? In applying this test in the study of history, we soon find ourselves passing lightly over or omitting altogether much that has found a conspicuous place in class-room work.

In the Constitutional period, the traditional grouping of topics according to Presidential administrations has been abandoned in the belief that the sequence of events can be more clearly understood by a *logical* grouping. But those who prefer to use the traditional method can easily adapt it to this book. Numerous references are made, in the notes "To the Pupil," to the Presidents and their terms of office, and a carefully prepared table containing a list of the Presidents and important facts about them may be found in the

Appendix. Moreover, portraits of all the Presidents and sketches of their lives have been given an appropriate place.

Inasmuch as the colonization of the West has played so large a part in our history, no apology need be made for the prominence given to Western settlement, Western life, the difficult problems of connecting the East and the West, the effect of Western expansion upon the slavery controversy and immigration, the influence of the prairies and the Pacific railroads, and so on.

In discussing the development of the West, the intimate relation existing between man and the physical conditions that surround him is made evident. Indeed, throughout the book the marked influence of geography upon history has been distinctly recognized.

But, however important physical conditions may be, history concerns itself more largely with moral than with material life. Accordingly, the personal actor has been given emphasis. In portraits, autographs, biographical sketches, and in the conspicuous mention made of representative men, the moral element has been kept uppermost. For man dominating his physical and social surroundings is the central fact of history.

The very cordial reception given to the previous editions of this book has been most gratifying. In this new edition the history has been brought down to date. Although many changes in the text have not been found necessary, yet, whenever in the interests of a more useful book such changes have seemed advisable they have been unhesitatingly made. The excellence of the maps and pictures in the editions already published has won hearty commendation for their helpfulness in illuminating and supplementing the text.

In closing, the author wishes to express his deep obligation to Dr. Thomas M. Balliet, Dean of the New York University of Pedagogy, and to Professor William E. Mead, of Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn., for their many invaluable suggestions; also to Miss Elizabeth M. Worthington, of Hartford, Conn., for her great care in reading the proof.

WILBUR F. GORDY.

CONTENTS

DISCOVERY OF AMERICA

CHAPTER PAGE

I. Discovery of America, ... 1

EXPLORATION AND COLONIZATION

II. Spain in the New World, ... 13

III. England in the New World, ... 20

IV. The English in Virginia and Maryland (1607–1689), 28

V. The Pilgrims and Puritans in Massachusetts and Connecticut (1620–1689), ... 42

VI. The Dutch in New York and the Quakers in Pennsylvania (1609–1689), ... 63

VII. Life Among the Indians, ... 75

VIII. Early Indian Wars, ... 84

IX. French Explorations, ... 87

X. The Last French War, ... 93

XI. Life in the Colonies at the Close of the French and Indian Wars, ... 105

XII. Growth toward Union in the Colonies, . . . 118

THE REVOLUTION, THE CONFEDERATION, AND THE FEDERAL UNION

XIII. The Revolution, ... 125

XIV. The Breakdown of the Confederation and the Formation of the Constitution (1781–1789), . 185

XV. The New Struggle for Political Independence and the Growth of National Feeling (1789–1829, ... 194

CHAPTER PAGE
XVI. JACKSONIAN DEMOCRACY AND THE WEST (1829–1841), . 250
XVII. THE SLAVERY QUESTION (1841–1859), ... 267
XVIII. SECESSION AND THE CIVIL WAR (1860–1865), . . 298

RECONSTRUCTION AND THE NEW UNION

XIX. RECONSTRUCTION DAYS (1865–1871), ... 356
XX. THE NEW SOUTH (1877–), ... 365
XXI. THE NEW WEST (1865–), ... 372
XXII. THE NEW UNION (1865), ... 382
XXIII. THE SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR AND RECENT EVENTS (1898–), ... 410
XXIV. SOME INDUSTRIAL, ECONOMIC, SOCIAL, AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS AND PROBLEMS OF THE PRESENT, . 451

TOPICAL REVIEWS IN AMERICAN HISTORY, ... 472

APPENDICES

A. THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE, ... 481
B. A CHART ON THE CONSTITUTION, ... 485
CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES, ... 486
C. TABLE OF STATES AND TERRITORIES, ... 501
D. PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES, ... 503

INDEX, ... 505

LIST OF ILLUSTRATIONS

PAGE

George Washington, ... *Frontispiece*

A Ship of the Norsemen, ... 2

Christopher Columbus, ... 3

The *Nina*, ... 4

The *Pinta*, ... 4

The *Santa Maria*, ... 5

Sebastian Cabot, ... 8

Columbus at the Court of Ferdinand and Isabella after his Return from the New World, ... *facing page* 8

Americus Vespucius, ... 9

Cortez, ... 13

Old Spanish Mission, New Mexico, Built 1604, ... 14

Spanish Gateway, St. Augustine, Florida, ... 14

Balboa, ... 15

Fernando de Soto, ... 16

Queen Elizabeth, ... 20

Sir Walter Raleigh and Autograph, ... 21

The Destruction of the Spanish Armada, ... 22

Philippe II., King of Spain, 1527–1598, ... 23

An Indian Village at Roanoke, ... 24

English Explorers Bartering with Indians for Land, ... 25

Queen Elizabeth's Signature, ... 27

Signature of James I., ... 28

Ruins of Old Church at Jamestown, ... 30

Captain John Smith, ... 31

Tobacco-plant, ... 34

A Wild Dash for Life, ... 35

George Calvert (Lord Baltimore), ... 38

A Maryland Shilling, ... 39

A Puritan, ... 42

Oliver Cromwell, ... 43

The *Mayflower*, ... 46

A Chest which came over in the *Mayflower*, ... 47

Myles Standish, ... 48

Pilgrim Types, ... 49

Myles Standish's Bill of Expenses after his Visit to the Indians, . . . 50

PAGE
Hooker's Emigration to Connecticut, ... *facing page* 50
Gov. John Winthrop, ... 51
First Church at Salem, ... 54
Facsimile of Opening Lines of the Massachusetts Charter, . . . 56–57
Sir Edmund Andros, ... 58
The Charter Oak, ... 60
A Dutch Officer of the Seventeenth Century, ... 64
A Group of Seventeenth Century Dutchmen, ... 65
The Earliest Picture of New Amsterdam, ... 66
Henry Hudson's *Half Moon* on the Hudson, ... 67
An Early Dutch Man of War, ... 69
William Penn, ... 70
Penn's Treaty with the Indians, ... *facing page* 70
An Indian Camp, ... 76
Wampum received by Penn from the Indians, ... 77
Indian Whip (Quirt), War-Club, and Hunting-Arrow, ... 78
Indian Snow-shoes and Pappoose-case, ... 79
Totem of the Five Nations, ... 80
Totem of the Illinois, ... 80
Totem of the Sioux, ... 81
Totem of the Hurons, ... 81
Carved Pipes from an Indian Mound, ... 82
Big Elephant Mound, ... 83
Indians Carrying Canoes over a Portage, ... 85
French Soldiers of the Time of the French Exploration, ... 88
Samuel Champlain, ... 89
La Salle Claiming for France all the Territory through which the Mississippi and its Tributaries Flowed, ... *facing page* 90
Robert Cavalier De La Salle, ... 91
French Soldiers and Officers of the Time of the French War, . . . 95
Quebec in 1730, ... 97
General Braddock's Troops in an Indian Ambuscade, . . *facing page* 98
Maj.-Gen. James Wolfe, ... 101
Marquis de Montcalm, ... 102
Puritans Going to Church, ... 108
A Wanton Gospeller, ... 110
The Pillory, ... 112
Colonial Relics, ... 113
Early New Amsterdam, Showing Costumes, Amusements, and Architecture, ... 114–115
Old Spinning-wheel, ... 117
Title-page of "Poor Richard's Almanac," 120
John Hancock House, Boston, Mass., ... 126
James Otis, ... 127

PAGE
A Royal Stamp, ... 128
Faneuil Hall, Boston, Mass., ... 129
Old State House, Boston, Mass., ... 130
Patrick Henry, ... 131
The "Boston Massacre," 133
Old South Church, Boston, ... 135
St. John's Church, Richmond, Va., ... 137
The Fight on Lexington Common, April 19, 1775, . . . *facing page* 138
Old North Church, Boston, Mass., ... 140
The Retreat from Concord, ... *facing page* 140
The Battle of Bunker Hill, ... *facing page* 142
The Washington Elm at Cambridge, ... 144
The Craigie House, Washington's Headquarters at Cambridge (afterward the residence of Longfellow), ... 146
Samuel Adams, ... 149
Independence Hall, Philadelphia, Pa. Chestnut Street Front, . . . 150
Signing the Declaration of Independence, ... *facing page* 150
The Jumel Mansion, New York City, Washington's Headquarters, . . 153
John Burgoyne, ... 159
Lafayette, ... 160
Benjamin Franklin, ... 162
The Attack on the Chew House, Germantown, . . . *facing page* 164
A Revolutionary Gun, ... 165
A Revolutionary Flint-lock Pistol, ... 16
Clark on the way to Kaskaskia, ... 17
John Paul Jones, ... 172
The *Bonhomme Richard* and the *Serapis*, ... 173
The Escape of Benedict Arnold, ... 178
Nathaniel Greene, ... 180
Washington Firing the First Gun at the Siege of Yorktown, *facing page* 180
Nelson House, Yorktown, Va., ... 182
Three Shilling Massachusetts Bill of 1741, ... 186
Celebrating in New York the Adoption of the Constitution, ... 189
Washington's Mansion—South and West Fronts—Mt. Vernon, Va., . . 196
Washington's Bedroom, Mt. Vernon, Va., ... 197
Servants' Quarters, Mt. Vernon, Va., ... 198
A Mail Carrier, ... 199
A Fast Mail—1876, ... 199
A Twentieth Century Flyer, ... 199
John Jay, ... 200
How Washington Signed his Name at Various Ages, ... 201
Alexander Hamilton, ... 202
A Primitive Cotton-gin, ... 204
Whitney's First Cotton-gin, ... 205

		PAGE
John Adams,		209
School-house where Thomas Jefferson Received his Early Education,		214
Monticello, the Home of Jefferson,		215
Thomas Jefferson,		216
A Pack-horse,		217
A Hand Corn-mill,		217
A Sweep-mill,		218
Breaking Flax,		218
An Ohio River Flatboat,		219
Early Settlers Crossing the Plains,	*facing page*	220
Lewis's First Glimpse of the Rockies,	*facing page*	222
James Madison,		228
American Seamen Boarding the *Frolic*,	*facing page*	232
Old State House, where the Hartford Convention Met,		237
James Monroe,		241
Henry Clay, "The Great Peacemaker,"		244
John Quincy Adams, the Anti-slavery Statesman,		246
Andrew Jackson,		251
John C. Calhoun, the Defender of Slavery and State Rights,		253
Daniel Webster,		255
Robert Y. Hayne,		256
The Boston & Worcester Railroad in 1835,		258
The Baltimore & Ohio Railroad, 1830–35,		258
A Railway Coach of 1830,		261
Martin Van Buren,		262
William Henry Harrison,		268
John Tyler,		269
Facsimile of the Heading of Garrison's Paper,		272
James K. Polk,		275
The Storming of Chapultepec,		276
Sutter's Mill, where Gold was first found in California,		279
Zachary Taylor,		280
Modes of travel in the West. An Old Stage-coach and Prairie Schooner,		282
Millard Fillmore,		283
Fugitive Slave Advertisements,		284
Franklin Pierce,		286
Charles Sumner,		289
Old Plantation Days,		292
James Buchanan,		294
Engine House, Harper's Ferry,		296
Abraham Lincoln,		300
Lincoln's Birthplace,		301
Jefferson Davis,		303

PAGE
Interior of Fort Sumter after the Bombardment in 1863, ... 306
Long Bridge Across the Potomac at Washington, D. C., ... 308
George B. McClellan, ... 309
Deck of the *Monitor*, ... 312
The Battle between the *Monitor* and the *Merrimac*, . . *facing page* 314
Parapet at Fortress Monroe, ... 316
Grant's "Unconditional Surrender" Letter, ... 317
A Mortar Battery in front of Yorktown, ... 321
A Federal Battery in the Field, ... 323
Robert E. Lee, ... 324
Fugitive Negroes Fording the Rappahannock, ... 326
Thomas J. ("Stonewall") Jackson, ... 327
George G. Meade, ... 329
The First Reading of the Emancipation Proclamation, ... 331
A Federal Cavalry Camp—Winter Quarters 332
George H. Thomas, "the Rock of Chickamauga," 333
General Grant and Staff on Point Lookout, 1863, ... 334
General U. S. Grant, ... 337
Building a Pontoon Bridge, ... 338
Philip H. Sheridan, ... 339
Destroying a Railroad at Atlanta, Ga., ... 340
William T. Sherman, ... 341
David Glasgow Farragut, ... 343
Farragut in Mobile Bay, ... *facing page* 344
A Council of War at Massaponax Church, ... 347
The Surrender of Lee to Grant at Appomattox, . . . *facing page* 348
A Sanitary Commission Lodge near Alexandria, Va., ... 351
Andrew Johnson, ... 357
A Ku-klux "Warning" in Mississippi, ... 362
Rutherford B. Hayes, ... 366
Eads Bridge over the Mississippi at St. Louis, ... 367
A Cotton Press Yard, New Orleans, ... 368
A Sugar Plantation, ... 369
State Buildings, Atlanta, Ga., ... 370
A Cripple Creek Mine, ... 374
A Reaper, ... 375
A Steam-Driven Gang-Plow, ... 376
A Thresher, ... 377
Indian Warfare in the West, ... *facing page* 378
Artesian Well System, Riverside, Cal. An Aerator in foreground, . . 379
An Irrigated Orange Grove, Riverside, Cal., ... 380
A Midship View of the *Great Eastern*, showing one of the Paddle Wheels and the Launching Gear, ... 383
Samuel F. B. Morse's Original Model of the Telegraph Instrument, . . 384

PAGE
R. F. T. Allen's Original Model of the Typewriter, ... 385
Alexander Graham Bell's Original Model of the Telephone Receiver and Transmitter, ... 386
Elias Howe's Original Model of the Sewing Machine, ... 387
Opening Day at the Philadelphia Centennial, 1876, ... 388
Samuel J. Tilden, ... 389
James A. Garfield, ... 390
Supreme Court Room, Capitol, Washington, D. C., ... 391
Chester A. Arthur, ... 392
Grover Cleveland, ... 393
Brooklyn Bridge. One of the Largest Suspension Bridges in the World, . 394
The Statue of Liberty in New York Harbor, ... 396
Senate Chamber, Washington, D. C., ... 398
Hall of the House of Representatives, Washington, D. C., ... 399
James G. Blaine, ... 400
The New Battleship *Maine*, ... 401
Benjamin Harrison, ... 402
At the World's Fair, ... *facing page* 402
William McKinley, ... 404
The Inauguration of William McKinley, ... 406
The Wreck of Cervera's Flagship *Colon*, ... 410
W. S. Schley, ... 411
George Dewey, ... 412
Shipping and Docks, Pasig River, Manila, ... 413
United States Troops Landing at Baiquiri, Cuba, ... 415
The Palace at Santiago on which the American Flag was Raised when the American Troops Took Possession, ... 416
Theodore Roosevelt, ... 417
William T. Sampson, ... 418
Nelson A. Miles, ... 420
Native Tagalo Children, Malabon, ... 421
Wireless Telegraph Station at Wellfleet, Cape Cod, ... 424
The Atlantic Fleet Starting on its Voyage Around the World, Dec., 1907, . 426
Peace Palace, The Hague, ... 428
Natural Forest Regions of the United States 434
William H. Taft, ... 435
The New Department of State Building, ... 437
Woodrow Wilson, ... 438
The Round-Up, ... 451
A Textile Mill, ... 452
Anthracite Coal Mine, ... 454
Goods Awaiting Exportation, ... 457
Transportation in a Large City, showing Elevated Road, Surface Line and Subway, ... 459

PAGE
A Crowded Street in a Tenement District, ... 461
New Steel Tower Bridge Across the East River, New York, . . . 462
Ralph Waldo Emerson, ... 464
John Greenleaf Whittier, ... 464
The Louisiana Purchase Exposition, St. Louis, 1904. One of the Bridges and Lagoons, with the Palace of Education, ... 465
The Capitol, Washington, D. C., ... 466

LIST OF MAPS

PAGE
The World as Known in the Time of Columbus, 7
English and Spanish Explorers in America, 10
Routes of Narvaez, De Soto, and Ponce de Leon, 17
The United States as it was in 1650, *between pages* 28 and 29
Plymouth and London Grants, 1606, 29
England and Holland, 45
New England, 53
Province Ruled over by Sir Edmund Andros, 1688, 59
Colonies between Potomac and Hudson Rivers, 71
Routes of Champlain, Marquette, and La Salle—also English Possessions, French and Spanish Claims, *between pages* 88 and 89
Quebec and Vicinity, 100
Results of the French and Indian War, 107
Boston and Vicinity, 143
New York and Vicinity, 151
Washington's Retreat across New Jersey, 155
Burgoyne's Invasion and Howe's Capture of Philadelphia, 161
War in the South and the Northwest Territory, 171
Scene of Arnold's Treason, 177
North America at the Close of the Revolution, *between pages* 182 and 183
Louisiana Purchase and Lewis and Clark Route, 221
War of 1812, *between pages* 234 and 235
Oregon Country, 270
Area in Dispute at Time of Mexican War, *facing page* 274
The Mexican Cession, Gadsden Purchase, etc., *facing page* 280
Acquisition of Territory, *facing page* 294
The First and Second Secession Areas, *between pages* 304 and 305
Campaigns in the West, 1862–63, 318
Virginia Campaigns and McClellan's Route, 320
The Battle of Gettysburg, 328
Vicksburg and Vicinity, 330
Chattanooga and Vicinity, 335
Sherman's March to the Sea, 342
Cuba, 414
Porto Rico, 419
The United States in 1910, *between pages* 420 and 421
Philippine Islands 422
Trade Routes with Distances by Existing Lines and by the Panama Canal, 444, 445

HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

Discovery of America

CHAPTER I

DISCOVERY OF AMERICA

REFERENCES: **Scribner's** Popular History of the United States, I.; **Wright's** Children's Stories in American History; **Richardson's** History of Our Country; **Coffin's** Old Times in the Colonies; **Eggleston's** Household History; **Bancroft's** United States, I.; **Andrews's** United States, I.

OUTSIDE READINGS: **Irving's** Columbus; **Prescott's** Ferdinand and Isabella; **Winsor's** Columbus; **Fiske's** Discovery of America; **Towle's** Heroes of History (Marco Polo; also Vasco Da Gama); **Brooks's** The Story of Marco Polo.

1. European Trade with Asia in the Fifteenth Century.—For many hundred years there had been more or less trade between the people of Europe and Asia. Silks, spices, and precious stones had been brought by ships and caravans from India, China, and Japan, enriching the cities of southern Europe. Genoa and Venice, especially, had been made rich by this eastern trade, which continued to grow until 1453, when the Turks conquered Constantinople. This was thirty-nine years before Columbus discovered America. At this time European vessels on the Mediterranean Sea were no longer safe from the attack of these fierce and warlike people. Therefore Europe began to look for another and safer route to the Indies.

2. Aids to Discovery.—Three inventions which had recently come into practical use had made discovery less difficult than it had ever been before. (1) Gunpowder made easier the conquest of uncivilized peoples; (2) the

A SHIP OF THE NORSEMEN.

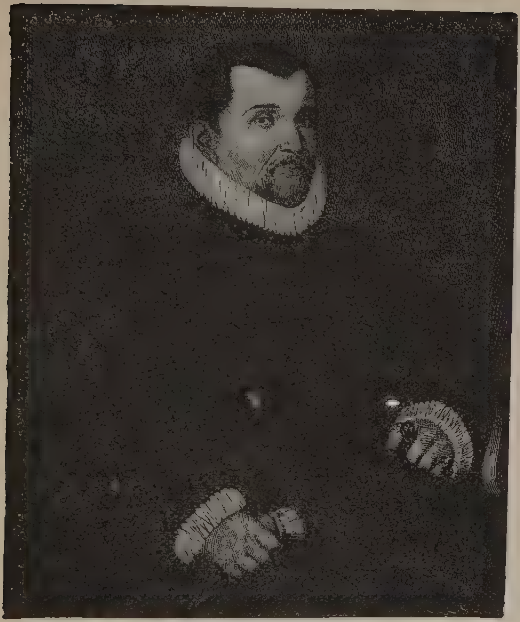
Remains of a viking ship and a sketch showing steering board.

mariner's compass encouraged the sailor to venture far out into the sea; (3) and the printing-press spread abroad the knowledge of new-found lands. Men were full of curiosity, and the more they learned the more they wished to know. With this burning desire for knowledge went hand in hand the spirit of adventure. There was a longing to go into distant lands, to perform great deeds, and to bring home gold and jewels. In these far-away lands men thought they should find honor, wealth, and fame.

3. Portugal Leads in Discovering an Eastern Route.—Portugal is to-day a very unimportant country. At the time when men were trying to find a safe water route to the Indies, she was one of the great powers of the world. She was the leader in many adventures and discoveries reaching through a period of two centuries. Early in the fifteenth century, Portuguese vessels and seamen were slowly and cautiously skirting the coast of Africa, and after seventy years of brave struggle they found the Cape of Good Hope.[1] Portugal had at this time many vessels and

---

[1] Diaz reached the southern point of Africa in 1487 and called it the Cape of Storms. It was afterward significantly named the Cape of Good Hope.



CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS.

From a portrait by Antonio Van Moor painted in 1542. By permission of Charles F. Gunther.

seamen, and was the first country to find a new route to the Indies.

4. **Plans of Columbus.**—In the meantime Christopher Columbus, in common with some learned men of his time, had decided that the eastern coast of Asia could be reached by sailing westward across the Atlantic. Columbus thought, also, that Asia was no farther from Europe on the west than we now know America to be. He thought the East Indies were directly west from the Canary Islands. This being so, the easiest way of reaching China, India, and Japan would be to sail down to the Canaries, and from them straight across the Atlantic in a westerly direction. To us, with our knowledge, all this seems simple and natural enough, but it was not so then. Men knew little of the world outside of their own country. Sailors were afraid to venture upon the trackless ocean, or Sea of Darkness, as

Difficulties of Columbus.

they called the Atlantic, where death seemed likely to meet them. Moreover, practical difficulties stood in the way. Such an enterprise would require the equipment of vessels at much expense. Money and influence were essential. Columbus had neither, but he was eager to fit out an expedition. He went with his plans to his native city Genoa, and then to Portugal and Spain. He sent his brother to England and to France. Then he went to Spain again. He was nowhere successful. Some thought he was an idle dreamer, and others that he was a madman. But he never despaired, because he had faith in himself and believed also that his work was under the special direction of God.

THE *NINA*.

THE *PINTA*.

Columbus sets sail.

5. **First Voyage of Columbus (1492).**—Finally, after seven years of anxious waiting, the brave Columbus found success. Isabella, Queen of Spain, agreed to aid him in carrying out his plans. Still there were difficulties. Sailors were unwilling to go on the dangerous voyage, but were compelled to yield to the mandate of the king. Three small vessels, only one of which had a deck, were fitted out. The largest of these, the *Santa Maria*, was commanded by Columbus. The others were the *Nina* and the *Pinta*. Before sunrise, August 3, 1492, this little fleet, with one hundred and twenty men and provisions for a year, sailed out of the port of Palos. It was a sad hour for the poor sailors. Columbus steered for the Canaries, where he stopped over three weeks to make a rudder for one of his vessels. He then set sail again. As soon as they could no longer see land, the sailors were overcome with fear and cried like children. At the end of a week the compass needle did not point to the North

Star. Failing to understand the reason for this, the sailors were struck with terror. Three days later the vessels entered wide stretches of sea-weed. It was then feared that the vessels might strike upon hidden rocks and be dashed to pieces. But they passed on in safety.

The sailors in despair.

Soon afterward the sailors were gladdened by the sight of birds, which they thought indicated that land was near. It was an idle hope, for no land appeared. Again and again the cry "Land" was shouted, but in every case the cry was called forth by the sight of distant clouds. The poor sailors were in despair. They were now in the belt of the trade-winds, which were steadily and certainly blowing them farther and farther from home and friends. "We can never return to Spain," they said. "What shall we do?" They begged Columbus to turn back. He refused. They became angry and talked of throwing him overboard. He knew he was in danger and tried hard to quiet their fears and to give them hope. It was then that his great influence over men was shown. His tall and manly figure gave him a commanding presence, but his greatest strength in these trying days lay in his noble soul and his lofty purpose. His courage never failed him. Sometimes he heartened the sailors with promises of wealth and fame, and again, as occasion demanded, he threatened them with punishment from the Spanish king.

THE *SANTA MARIA.*

At last, after a voyage of ten weeks, land was discovered October 12,[1] 1492. In a full suit of armor and bearing the flag of Spain, Columbus landed. With tears of joy he knelt upon the ground and offered thanks to God. Then, planting the royal banner, he took possession of the land in the name of the king and queen of Spain. He had discovered one of the Bahama Islands which he called San Salvador (Holy Saviour). He coasted along the shores of Cuba and Hayti, touched the coast here and there, and sent reconnoitring parties inland to examine the land. He did not find the cities of Asia as he had expected, but he had no doubt that he was in the East Indies, and therefore called the natives Indians.

---

[1] October 21 by the present method of reckoning time.

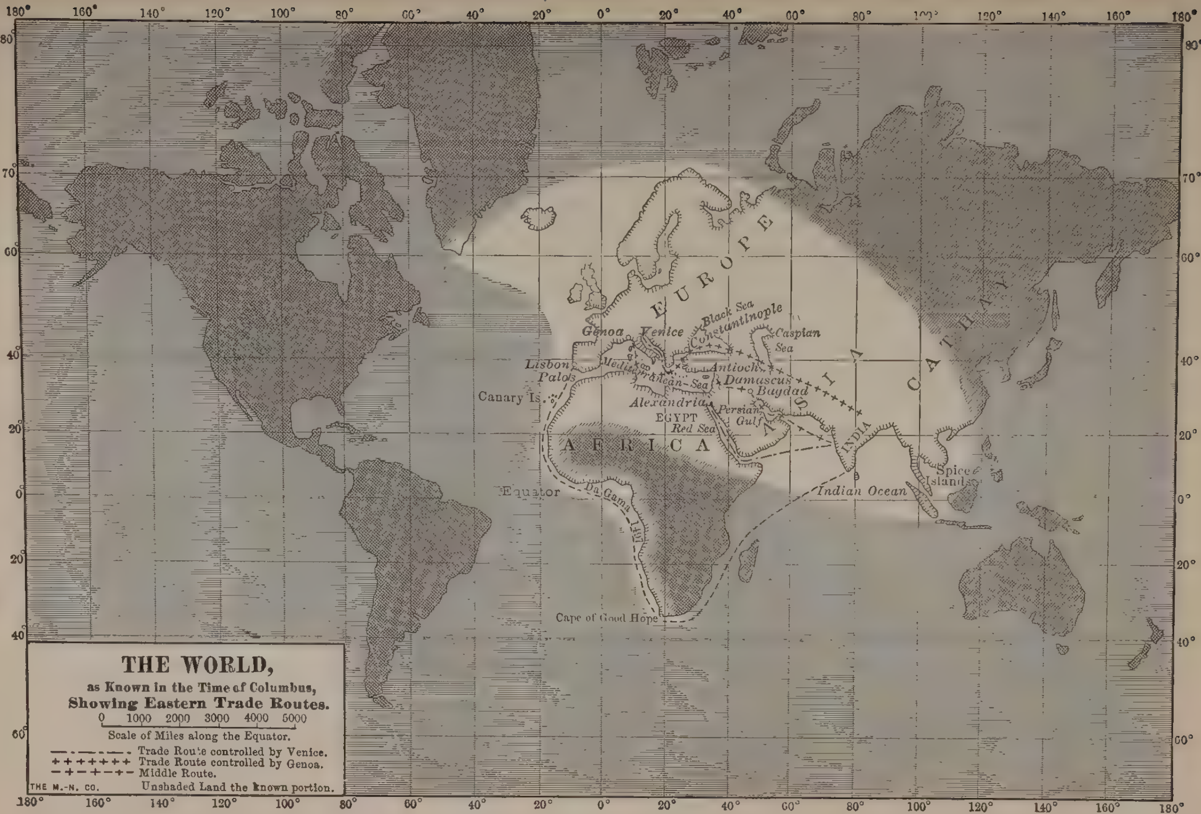
Land discovered.

6. Other Voyages of Columbus.—When Columbus returned to Spain with the news of his discovery, the people were enthusiastic with delight. The idle dreamer became suddenly great and famous, and honors were heaped upon him from every side. It was easy enough to find sailors and vessels for a second voyage, which was made in the following year, 1493. Men were now eager to go where they expected to get all kinds of wealth. Four voyages were made in all, but when the adventurers reached the land of their hopes, and found no silks, no spices, no precious stones, no gold, they reproached Columbus. The Court of Spain, also, finding no return for the great expense of fitting out these expeditions, censured him. His enemies increased, and his last days were spent in disappointment and neglect. Heart-broken, he died ignorant of the greatness of his own discovery.

Last days of Columbus.

7. John Cabot Discovers the Mainland of North America (1497).—In consequence of the discoveries by Columbus in the West and of those by Portuguese captains in the East, it was feared there might be trouble between Spain and Portugal over the new-found lands. To keep the peace, therefore, between these two great Catholic countries, a treaty was signed in 1494, dividing between them the heathen lands that had been, or should be, discovered. "The Line of Demarcation," extending north and south three hundred and seventy leagues west of the Cape

The "Line of Demarcation" divides the heathen possessions of Spain and Portugal.



THE WORLD,
as Known in the Time of Columbus,
Showing Eastern Trade Routes.

Verde Islands, ran between Spain's possessions on the West and those of Portugal on the East. The powerful navies of these two countries were sufficient to make good their claims against England or any other nation. But England was determined to have some share in the discoveries that were stirring the hearts of men. Hence, in 1497, Henry VII. sent out John Cabot, accompanied possibly by his son Sebastian, to find a short northwest passage to Asia. By sailing across the northern part of the Atlantic, England avoided difficulties likely to arise from coming in contact with Spanish or Portuguese discoverers farther south. John Cabot landed somewhere on the eastern coast of North America, possibly on the coast of Labrador. He was therefore the first to discover the mainland of the Continent of North America, and he claimed it in the name of England. The next year Sebastian Cabot sailed from England and explored the coast of North America from Nova Scotia down as far as North Carolina or farther. Upon these discoveries England based her claim to North America.

SEBASTIAN CABOT.

Voyages of the Cabots.

8. Americus Vespucius and the Naming of America (1499–1503).—Americus Vespucius, a native of Florence and a navigator, was first employed by Spain and later by Portugal, to make explorations. In 1499 he skirted the coast of Venezuela and northeastern South America. During the next four years he made several voyages to Brazil, and explored its coast as far south as the mouth of the La Plata River. On returning to Europe he wrote a good description of what he had seen. This was published in 1504, and constituted the first printed account of the mainland of the New World. Up to that time Europe, Asia, and Africa were known as the three parts of the

COLUMBUS AT THE COURT OF FERDINAND AND ISABELLA AFTER HIS RETURN FROM THE NEW WORLD.

NOTES

North and South Carolina (1663–1729).—In 1663–65 Charles II., desiring to reward eight of his favorite noblemen, gave them a grant of all the land between the Atlantic and the Pacific and extending from Virginia to a point some distance below St. Augustine. Thus we see that this land, called Carolina, had eight proprietors, just as Maryland and Pennsylvania each had one.

The form of government for Carolina was aristocratic. It was called the Grand Model, and is said to have been outlined by a great English philosopher, John Locke. A few noblemen were to own all the land, make the laws, and have all the powers of government in their hands. The people were, like the old Russian serfs, to be bought and sold with the land. Of course this absurd scheme was a failure. The people made so much trouble for the proprietors that the latter were glad to sell in 1729 all their rights to the king of England. The king then divided Carolina into North and South Carolina, appointing a governor for each colony and allowing the people in each to choose their own assembly.

The population of the two colonies was composed of Englishmen, Huguenots, Germans, Scotch-Irish, and Scotch Highlanders. When the Revolution began, North Carolina was the fourth colony in population. The staple products of South Carolina were rice and indigo, and of North Carolina were tar, pitch, turpentine, and lumber.

Georgia (1733).—James Oglethorpe, a brave soldier and wealthy member of Parliament, knowing how eager the Spaniards were to destroy the weak English settlements in South Carolina, wished to plant a colony that should serve as a military outpost to ward off the Spanish attacks. But this was not his only motive. Being a man of warm sympathies, he desired to find relief for imprisoned debtors suffering in English prisons. He therefore secured from the king a grant of the land lying between the Savannah and the Altamaha Rivers and extending westward to the Pacific. In 1733 he planted at Savannah a colony in which freedom of worship was allowed to all but Catholics. For many years neither rum nor slaves could be imported. But, believing that these restrictions interfered with the prosperity of the colony, the people finally secured their removal. At the end of twenty years the trustees, to whom the king had granted the original charter, gave it up. Georgia then became a royal colony and remained so until the Revolution.

CHAPTER V

THE PILGRIMS AND PURITANS IN MASSACHUSETTS AND CONNECTICUT (1620–1689)

REFERENCES: **Scribner's** Popular History of the United States, I. and II.; **Drake's** Making of New England; **Coffin's** Old Times in the Colonies; **Wright's** Children's Stories in American History; **Winsor's** Narrative and Critical History, III.; **Eggleston's** Household History; **Andrews's** United States.

OUTSIDE READINGS: **Fisher's** Colonial Era; **Doyle's** English Colonies; **Dodge's** Short History of the English Colonies in America; **Thwaites's** The Colonies; **Hawthorne's** Grandfather's Chair; **Hale's** Story of Massachusetts; **Fiske's** Beginnings of New England; **Abbott's** Captain Myles Standish; **Earle's** Child Life in Colonial Days; **Earle's** Home Life in Colonial Days; **Drake's** On Plymouth Rock; **Drake's** Making of New England.

FICTION: **Stowe's** Mayflower; **Austin's** Standish of Standish, Betty Alden, A Nameless Nobleman, Dr. Le Baron and His Daughters; **Cogswell's** Regicides.

POETRY: **Longfellow's** Courtship of Myles Standish.

A PURITAN.

35. England Under the Stuarts (1603–1649 and 1660–1688).—We cannot understand who the Pilgrims and Puritans were, why they left their homes in England, and what they did after they came to America, unless we know something of English history from 1603 to 1689. With the exception of eleven years (1649–1660) the Stuart kings[1] reigned in England during this period. These men were oppressive rulers and aroused the opposition of many of the best people in England. When James I. ascended the throne he seemed to think that all England and its people were his personal property. He claimed that he ruled by divine right, which was another way of saying that his will was law and that the people had no rights which he was bound to respect.

---

[1] James I. (1603–1625), Charles I. (1625–1649), Charles II. (1660–1685), James II. (1685–1688).

The tyrannical Stuarts.

Accordingly, there at once began a struggle between the throne and the people, who were represented by Parliament. The great majority of the people claimed that they could not lawfully be taxed without their consent; in other words, that no taxes could be levied unless voted by the people's representatives in Parliament. The Stuarts tried to plan various ways of raising money without asking Parliament to vote it. But this was very difficult.

No taxation without representation.

OLIVER CROMWELL.

For eleven years (1629–1640) Charles I. ruled England without Parliament, and he was so arbitrary that he brought on the war which ended in the loss not only of his crown but of his life (1649). The Commonwealth followed (1649–1660), England being ruled by Oliver Cromwell and later by his son Richard. Oliver Cromwell became even more autocratic than Charles I. had been.

After the Restoration Charles II., son of Charles I., reigned till 1685, when he was succeeded by his brother, James II. The latter was so despotic that the people rose against him in the revolution of 1688 and drove him out of England. It will greatly help us to understand Berkeley in Virginia and Andros in New England, if we remember that these men were trying to rule in America as their royal masters were ruling in England.

James II. driven from England.

James I. was determined to make every one conform to the Established Church in England. But there were many people who did not like its forms and ceremonies and wished to modify them. They were called Puritans because, it was said, they wished to purify the Church. The Puritans wished to remain in the Church and reform it. Another party wished to leave the Established Church, or separate themselves from it, and were therefore known as Separatists or Independents. They not only disliked the forms and ceremonies of the English Church, but they also disapproved of church-government by bishops. They wished to have a church in which the people only should rule. Such a self-governing church, where each congregation could elect its minister and manage its own affairs without interference from king or bishop, afterward became known as Congregational.

The Church of England and the Puritans.

The Separatists.

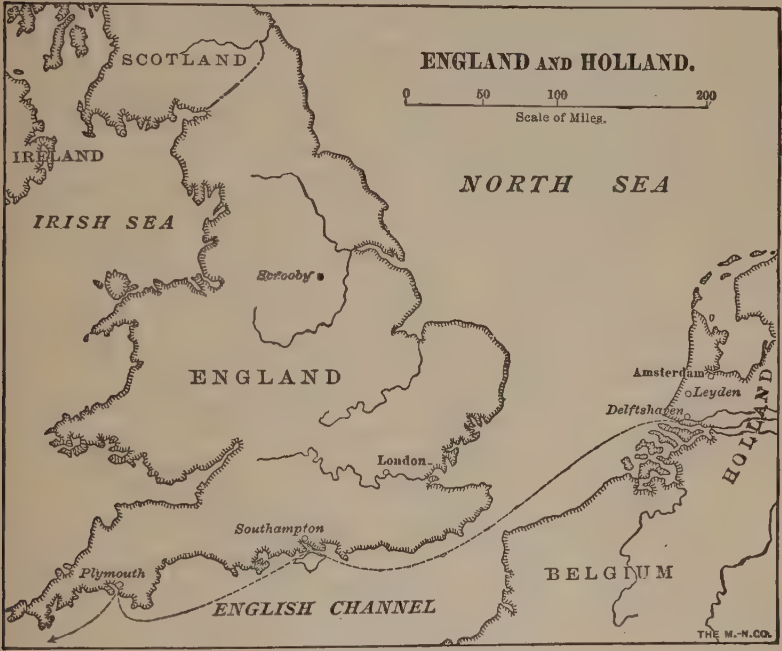
36. Pilgrims Migrate to America (1620).—In the early part of the reign of James I. a number of people in the village of Scrooby, a small village in Nottinghamshire, undertook to form such a church. But they were regarded as rebels and were hunted down, and some of them were thrown into prison. At last, in 1608, they escaped to Holland, where they were allowed to remain in peace and to worship as they pleased.

The Pilgrims escape to Holland.

But they were not satisfied to settle permanently in Holland, because they did not wish their children when grown up to intermarry with the Dutch. They wished to make homes in a new land and there establish a free government and their own religion. After remaining in Holland twelve years, therefore, they decided to go to America, in order to establish a self-governing community and bring up their

Their aims and character.

children to be liberty-loving and God-fearing men and women. By reason of their wanderings these people were called Pilgrims. The Pilgrims were poor, but they were men of strong will and noble purpose. They tried to get a charter from the king, but he refused to give it. He led them to believe, however, that he would not interfere with their project if they did not make themselves troublesome to him.



37. **Voyage and First Winter.**—After getting money on hard terms they started[1] over from Plymouth, England, in the *Mayflower* and the *Speedwell*. On account of a leak the *Speedwell* was obliged to return, and the *Mayflower*, with about one hundred people on board, sailed for America.

---

[1] The Pilgrims sailed in July, 1620, from Delftshaven, the Port of Leyden, Holland, in the *Speedwell* for Southampton, England, where the *Mayflower* awaited them.

After a stormy voyage they anchored about the end of November, 1620, on the northern shore of Cape Cod. As this place was not suitable for a settlement, they sailed across the bay to a good harbor and made their final landing at Plymouth December 21, 1620. The suffering during the first winter was severe, and before spring half their number were dead. But when spring came they had no disposition to return to England. Weak as they were in numbers and possessions, they were strong in manly purpose and brave enough to face any danger that threatened their little settlement.

THE *MAYFLOWER*.
From a model in the Smithsonian Institution.

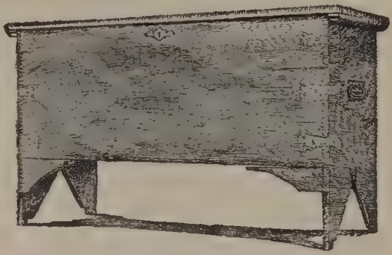
38. The Covenant, Democracy, and the Church.—Before landing they signed, in the cabin of the *Mayflower*, a covenant in which they agreed to make and support such laws as should seem for the best interests of all. John Carver was chosen governor. The laws were made in town-meetings, in which every man could vote. The Pilgrims at Plymouth believed that the people should rule; they planted democracy in their church and state. Some years later,[1] after population had increased, this pure democracy was obliged to give place to representative government. Governor Carver died during the first winter, and William Bradford was chosen to succeed him. Elder Brewster was the minister, and Captain Myles Standish was chosen military leader. These stout-hearted leaders well represented the character of the Plymouth settlers.

Pilgrim leaders.

39. Relations with the Indians.—For a better defence against the Indians the Pilgrims organized their able-bodied men into small companies who took turns in guarding the settlement against surprises by the Indians. Fortunately for the Plymouth settlers, so many of the Indians of that region had recently died from a pestilence that the remaining natives were not troublesome. Massasoit, chief of the Wampanoag Indians, visited Plymouth in the spring of 1621, and Governor Bradford made a treaty of peace with him that lasted fifty years.[1]

---

[1] In 1630 there were only 300 settlers. By 1639 representative government became necessary, and in 1643 the population numbered 3,000. This increase was due to surrounding settlements which began to spring up about 1630.



A CHEST WHICH CAME OVER IN THE *MAYFLOWER*.

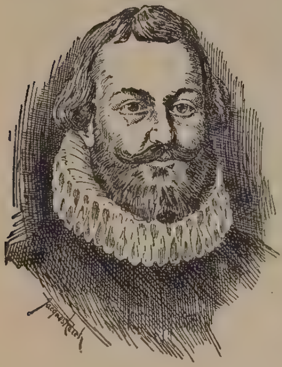
40. The Puritans and the Massachusetts Bay Colony (1628–1630).—Encouraged by the successes of the Pilgrims, many Puritans began to follow their example. In 1628 some of the leaders of the Puritan party in England, men of wealth and influence, formed a trading company. They bought of the Plymouth Company a tract of land along the Massachusetts coast, extending between the Charles and Merrimac Rivers and to within three miles beyond each, and sent out men to occupy it. Endicott was their leader, and they settled at Salem.

The Puritans secure a liberal charter.

The following year the same trading company, with increased numbers, obtained a charter from the king, incorporating it as the Governor and Company of Massachusetts Bay. Very likely Charles I. was quite willing to be rid of these liberty-loving, unruly subjects. At any rate he granted them a charter which was very liberal in its terms. It allowed the freemen of the company to choose their own governor, his deputy, and a council of eighteen assistants, and to manage in every way their own affairs. It did not restrict its holders in the place of meeting. Of course this was a distinct advantage to the promoters of the new enterprise. Accordingly, in 1629, when the king was ruling with a high hand and setting at naught the will of Parliament by levying taxes himself and by throwing into prison those who refused to pay such illegal taxes, these Puritans decided upon the bold step of removing with their chartered rights to New England, where they might find a refuge from the tyranny of the king and build up a government according to their own ideas.

---

[1] Later the Narragansett chief, Canonicus, sent to Plymouth a rattlesnake skin containing a bundle of arrows; Governor Bradford removed the arrows and, filling the skin with powder and shot, returned it to the Indians. This hint was sufficient.



Myles Standish

MYLES STANDISH.

The Puritan settlements in 1630.

In 1630, under the leadership of John Winthrop, about 1,000 persons, with horses, cattle, and stores of various kinds, sailed for Massachusetts. This new colony, called the Massachusetts Bay Colony, made settlements at Charlestown, Boston, Roxbury, and Watertown. John Winthrop was made the first governor. Like the Plymouth colony they established a government democratic in form, but unlike the Plymouth colony they were men of wealth and culture. Some of them were relatives of the greatest men of the day. They were men of wisdom and energy also, and might have made great names[1] for themselves in England. It must have been a strong motive that led them to sacrifice so much. We shall see how tenaciously they held to the rights which those sacrifices had bought.

41. The New England Township.—Unlike ordinary colonists, the Puritans came in large communities with their plans of government fully matured. They were not Separatists in England as the Pilgrims had been, but the church they established in Massachusetts was independent and Congregational. Each congregation formed a settlement, and

---

[1] Stoughton, lieutenant-governor of Massachusetts (1692–1701), said, "God sifted a whole nation that He might send choice grain over into this wilderness."

PILGRIM TYPES.

The meeting-house and the village.

each settlement constituted a township and parish whose boundaries were one and the same, and usually included an area of from forty to sixty square miles. Each parish had one church or meeting-house, where all business, church or civil, was transacted.[1] Later the people erected a separate building for their town meetings and called it a town-house or town-hall. The meeting house and the town-house were the centres about which clustered the villages. In order to meet the more easily for worship the settlers built their houses close together. Perhaps another reason was to secure a better defence against the Indians.

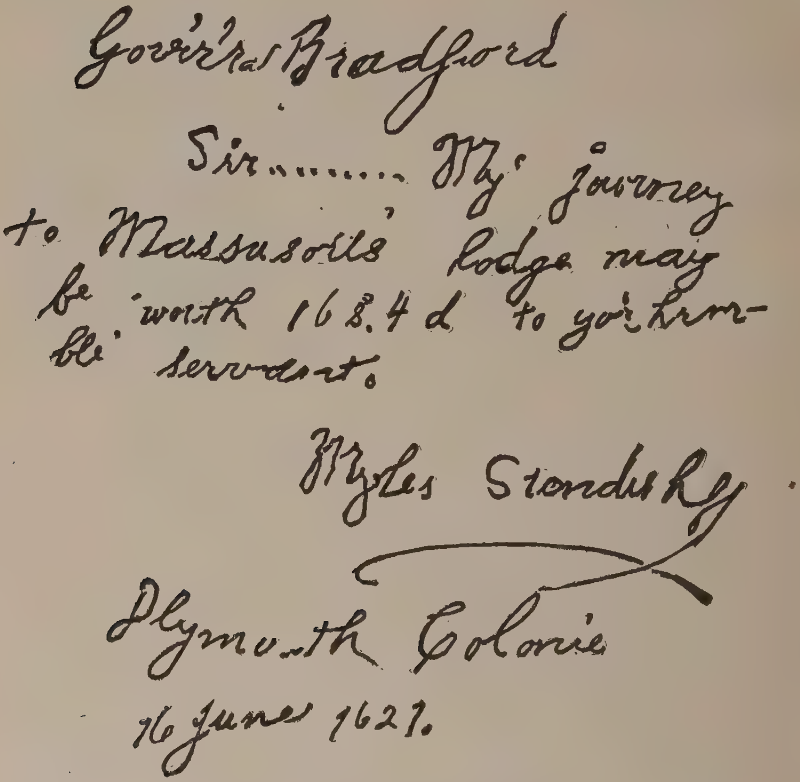
Puritans allow none but church members to vote.

42. Church and State.—The charter permitted all freemen to vote, but the Puritans came to New England to establish and preserve what was most dear to them, their own religious and political freedom—in no sense religious toleration. When the first elections were held, therefore, it was enacted that no one should be admitted a freeman and so have a right to vote who was not a member of one of the churches of the colony. The union of church and state was thus complete.

At first the freemen met with the governor, his deputy, and council of assistants to make such laws as pertained to the general welfare of the several towns. But after a time, when the towns and freemen had so multiplied that it became inconvenient for them all to meet, each town began to send representatives, or deputies, to the legislature, or General Court (1634), just as each settlement or borough in Virginia sent representatives to the House of Burgesses

---

[1] As early as 1631 it was decided that none but church members should be admitted as freemen.



Govr'nr Bradford

Sir....... My journey to Massasoits lodge may be worth 16 s. 4 d. to yor humble servant.

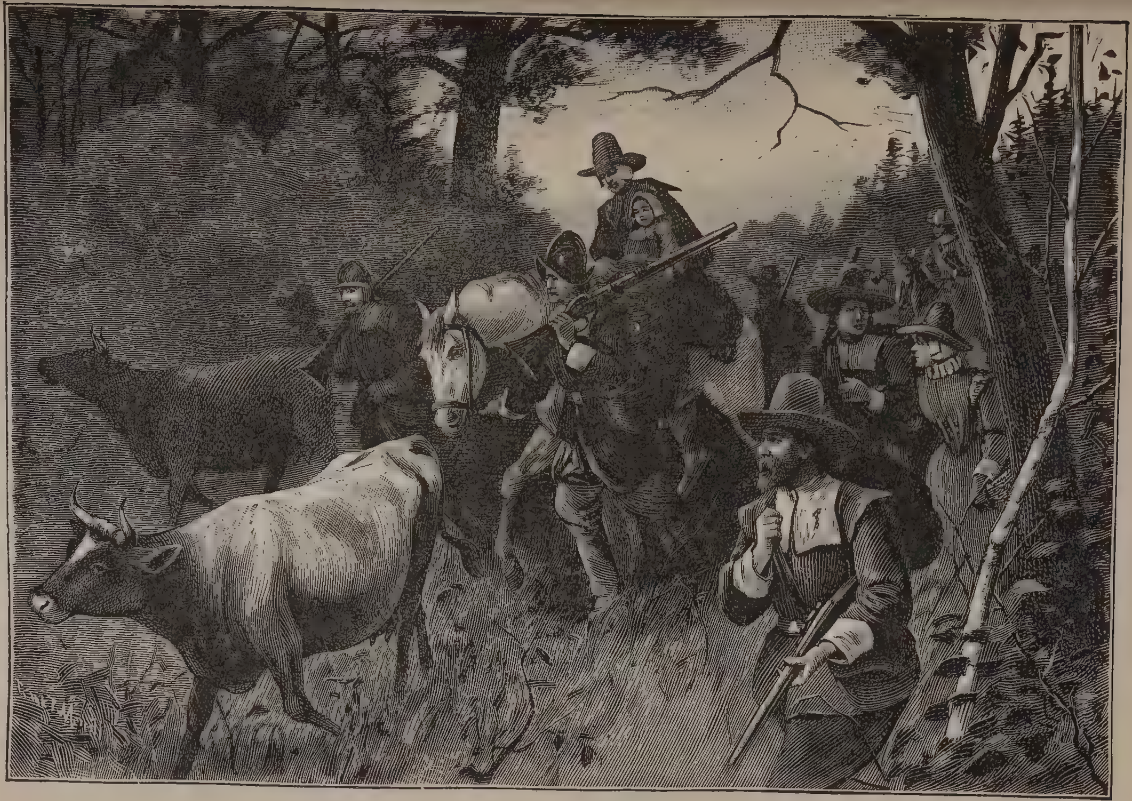
Myles Standish

Plymouth Colonie

16 June 1621.

MYLES STANDISH'S BILL OF EXPENSES AFTER HIS VISIT TO THE INDIANS.

43. Massachusetts Gets Control of the Connecticut Valley (1633–1636).—Some time before the Massachusetts Bay Company had made settlements on the New England coast the Dutch had become established in New York (then New Amsterdam) on the Hudson, where they were engaged in the fur trade with the Indians. Claiming the land as far east as the Connecticut River, they built a small fort at



HOOKER'S EMIGRATION TO CONNECTICUT.

The Dutch at Hartford.

Hartford in the interest of the fur trade. In 1633 Massachusetts sent up the Connecticut a vessel, which in spite of Dutch protests sailed to Windsor, six miles above Hartford. There the Massachusetts men built a house for trading with the Indians. Two years later John Winthrop, by building a fort called Saybrook at the mouth of the river, cut off the Dutch fort at Hartford from the support of New Amsterdam. The way was now open for Massachusetts to send settlers into the valley of the Connecticut.

44. Massachusetts Settles the Connecticut Valley (1635–1636).—In 1635 3,000 more settlers came from England to Massachusetts, where, some of them maintained, there was not enough good land for the many people now in that colony. The complaint of the lack of land came mainly from three of the eight Massachusetts towns. On hearing of the fertile soil of the Connecticut valley a great part of the people of these three towns decided to make settlements there. When they migrated to Connecticut they settled the three towns of Hartford, Wethersfield, and Windsor. The principal settlement was made at Hartford in June, 1636. Under the leadership of their minister, Thomas Hooker, one hundred men, women, and children came overland from Cambridge (then Newtown), driving their cattle before them. It took them two weeks to make the toilsome journey through the woods to their new home.

Jo: Winthop Gov

GOV. JOHN WINTHROP.

Settlement at Hartford.

45. Thomas Hooker and Democracy.—There is not much doubt that the principal reason why these three towns wished to move to Connecticut was political. Many people did not approve of the Puritan idea held in Massachusetts of allowing only church members to vote. Nor did they like to have the clergy take a controlling part in political life. Thomas Hooker, the minister at Cambridge, was the leader of this movement in favor of a more democratic system. John Winthrop and other Puritan leaders believed in government by only a part of the people. They did not believe that all the people were wise enough to govern well. But Thomas Hooker, like Abraham Lincoln, believed in government "of the people, by the people, and for the people."

46. The Connecticut Constitution (1639).—In 1639 the three towns of Hartford, Wethersfield, and Windsor united under one government. The constitution which they adopted was the first written constitution in all history upon which a government was built up. Another interesting fact about this constitution is that in it no mention was made either of the king or of the English company[1] holding a patent of the land. This constitution was made by the people, in the interests of the people, and showed that Thomas Hooker and his followers had faith in the ability of the people to manage their own affairs.[2] In the Connecticut colony all freemen, whether church members or not, could vote.

Government by the people.

The New Haven colony was founded in 1638 by a small body of men under the leadership of John Davenport and Theophilus Eaton. They based their laws strictly upon the Bible, and like the Massachusetts Bay colonists allowed none but church members to vote.

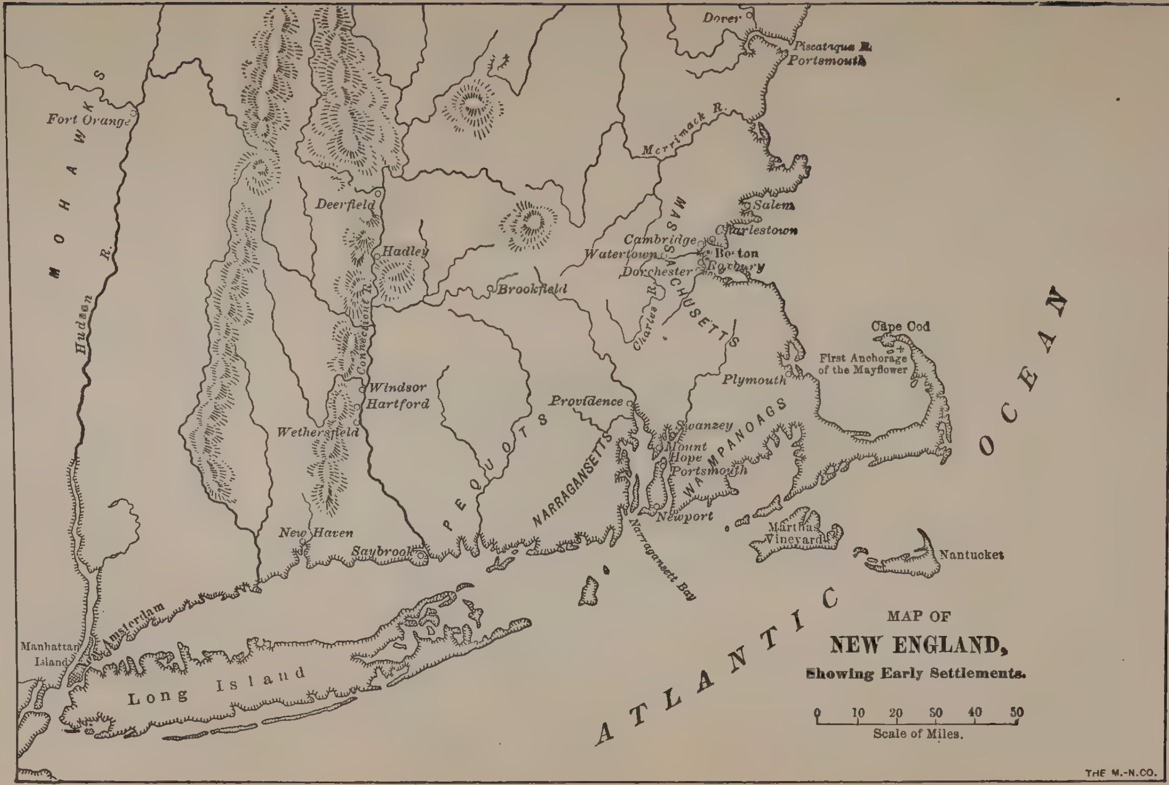
New Haven colony.

After the Restoration Connecticut, in order to confirm

---

[1] In 1630 the Council for New England granted the patent to the Earl of Warwick. In 1631 he assigned it to Lord Say-and-Sele and others.

[2] Alexander Johnston says: "It is on the banks of the Connecticut, under the mighty preaching of Thomas Hooker, and in the constitution to which he gave life if not form, that we draw the first breath of that atmosphere which is now so familiar to us. The birthplace of American democracy is Hartford."



MAP OF
NEW ENGLAND,
Showing Early Settlements.

her rights, thought it best to secure, if possible, a charter from the king. Governor Winthrop was sent to England, and by his tact and pleasing address succeeded in obtaining a charter (1662) for the territory which included Hartford, New Haven, and all the other settlements[1] that had been made in what is now Connecticut. This charter was so liberal and satisfied the people so well that it afterward became the State Constitution and remained in force till 1818.

The Connecticut charter.

FIRST CHURCH AT SALEM.

47. Religious Intolerance in Massachusetts Leads to the Settlement of Rhode Island (1636).— We must remember that the Puritans did not come to New England to establish religious freedom, but to form a state where they should have freedom for their own religion. They thought their own safety, certainly their own welfare, depended upon having none but members of the church take any part in government. But while none but church members could vote, all were obliged to pay taxes for the support of the church and were compelled to attend its services. Roger Williams, a young man of pure spirit and strong conviction, who had become pastor of a church at Salem (1633), declared this system to be wrong. He asserted that no man should be obliged to pay taxes to support any church, nor should he be punished by the magistrates for not attending church services. His belief was that

Roger Williams and his views.

---

[1] Saybrook was purchased by the Connecticut colony in 1644.

every man should settle all such matters with his conscience and his God. Williams stirred up the Puritans by declaring, also, that they had no just claim to the land they lived on. The land was theirs because the king had granted it to the Massachusetts Bay Company. But the land, Williams said, had never become the king's property; it belonged to the Indians; and the king, therefore, could not grant to anybody what was not his own.

This strange way of looking at the authority of the magistrates and at property rights alarmed the Puritans, especially as the English government was already none too friendly. They very much feared that the English king, hearing of the disturbance which these new teachings had caused in the colony, would hasten to take away the charter. Hence they looked upon Roger Williams as a dangerous person and drove him out of the colony.[1] He went to Rhode Island and made a settlement at Providence (1636). Rhode Island became a refuge for all who were seeking for a place to worship freely in accordance with their chosen faith.

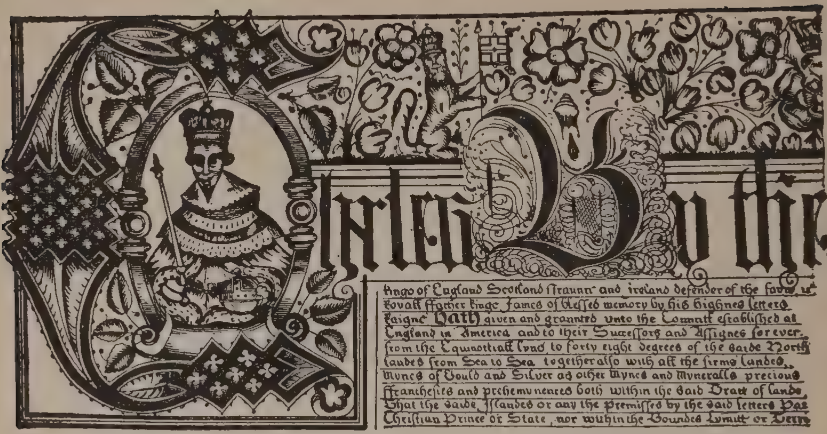
Roger Williams driven out of Massachusetts.

Another disturber of the public peace was Mrs. Anne Hutchinson, an able woman who had recently come from England. She gave religious lectures which were opposed in their doctrines to those of the regular clergy, and caused great excitement. Although some of the leading men were included among her followers she was banished from the colony.

48. The New England Confederacy (1643). — The Dutch, angry at the loss of their fur trade in the Connecticut valley, had twice tried to drive the English away. The French in Canada were trying to push their claims to the

---

[1] As soon as Roger Williams learned that the Puritan magistrates had decided to send him back to England, he made his escape in midwinter to the wilderness. Here he wandered about for fourteen weeks, through deep snows, sometimes sleeping in hollow trees at night and sometimes getting food from the Indians. Early in the following summer, with five friends from Salem, he crossed the Narragansett Bay in search of a new home. Canonicus, chief of the Narragansetts, gave him a tract of land where he made a settlement, calling it Providence, in token of God's care for him during his time of trouble.



Charles By the
kinge of England Scotland ffraunce and ireland defender of the faith, &c
Royall ffather Kinge James of bleſſed memory by his highnes letters
Raigne hath given and graunted unto the Counsell eſtabliſhed at
England in America and to their Succeſſors and Aſſignes forever.
from the Equinoctiall Line to forty eight degrees of the ſaide North
landes from Sea to Sea together alſo with all the firme landes,
Mynes of Gould and Silver as other Mynes and Mynneralls precious
ffranchesies and preheminences both within the ſaid Tract of lande
that the ſaide Iſlandes or any the Premiſſes by the ſaid letters Pat
Chriſtian Prince or State, nor within the Boundes Lymitt or Terr

FACSIMILE OF OPENING LINES

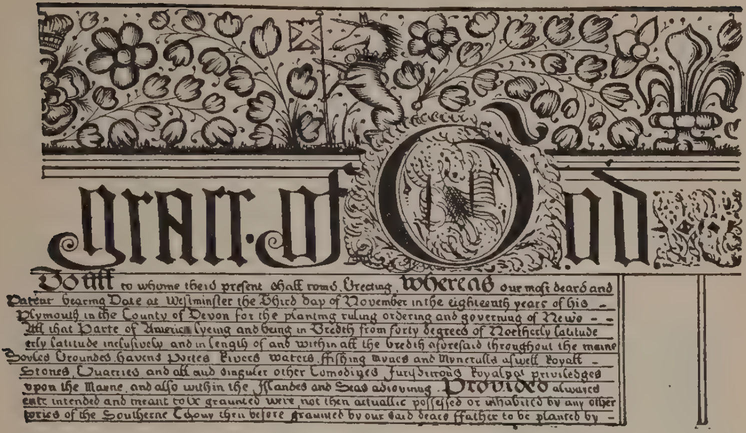
south, and the Indians, either as allies of the French or the Dutch or on their own account, threatened on all sides. Connecticut, therefore, proposed to Massachusetts a union of the New England colonies for mutual defence. In 1643 articles were agreed upon at Boston by representatives from Massachusetts, Plymouth, Connecticut, and New Haven, uniting the colonies in a confederation for "mutual safety and welfare."

Enemies of the New England colonies.

This confederacy was important because it taught the colonies how to unite and made stronger their feeling of independence. It prepared the way for the Albany Congress, the Continental Congress, and the union of the States in 1789.

49. **The Quakers in New England.**—In 1656 the Massachusetts colonists were greatly alarmed to learn of the arrival of two Quakers. These persons were at once thrown into prison until the ship in which they had come should sail, and boards were nailed on their prison windows to prevent them from communicating with people outside. But in spite of this harsh treatment the Quakers continued to come. Fined, imprisoned, whipped without mercy, mutilated, and driven from the colony on penalty of death, they still persevered.

Punishment of the Quakers.



To all to whome theis preſent ſhall come, Greeting, Whereas our moſt deare and
Patent bearing Date at Weſtminſter the Third day of November in the eighteenth yeare of his -
Plymouth in the County of Devon for the planting ruling ordering and governing of Newe - -
All that Parte of America lyeing and being in Bredth from forty degrees of Northerly latitude
erly latitude incluſively and in length of and within all the bredth aforeſaid throughout the maine
Soyles Groundes Havens Portes Rivers Waters, Fiſhing Mynes and Mineralls aſwell Royall -
Stones, Quarries and all and ſinguler other Comodities Juriſdiccons Royalties privileges
upon the Maine, and alſo within the Iſlandes and Seas adioyning. Provided alwaies
ents intended and meant to be graunted were not then actuallie poſſeſſed or inhabited by any other
ories of the Southerne Colony then beſore graunted by our ſaid deare ffather to be planted by -

OF THE MASSACHUSETTS CHARTER.

Not until four of them were hanged did a reaction in their favor set in.

We are led to ask why the Quakers persisted in coming to Massachusetts in the face of such deadly opposition, and why the Puritans were so horrified to have them in the colony. The first question is quickly answered. The Quakers were zealous to make converts and were more than willing to suffer for their teachings. In answering the second it may be said that the Quakers held in small esteem both the political and religious system of the Puritans. The ideal of the Quakers was a separation of church and state. They were guided by what they called the "inner light," or conscience. This was to them a supreme authority to be obeyed in spite of law or punishment. As they did not approve the Puritan system they refused to take the oath of allegiance, to pay taxes, or do military service.

Peculiar ideas of the Quakers.

To the Puritans the success of Quakerism meant the overthrow of Puritanism. The Puritans said, "We have come over to New England to establish a church and state after our own ideal. If the Quakers and others do not like our system let them go elsewhere, as we did when we left England."

Why the Puritans persecuted the Quakers.

50. Trouble with England and Loss of the Massachusetts Charter (1684).—During the first thirty years of its existence, Massachusetts, left pretty much alone by England, had improved her opportunities to build up a strong and independent government. The stormy reign of Charles I. had not permitted any oversight on the part of England. The commonwealth which succeeded (see par. 35), being Puritan in its sympathies, allowed the colony to follow its own course. But the conditions which had favored her growth thus far were giving way. After the Restoration (1660), it was not to be expected that Charles II. would overlook the growing importance and independent attitude of the Massachusetts colony. That would be too much to expect of any king, especially of a Stuart king. Moreover, Massachusetts had used her power in such a way as to make many enemies. Her custom of excluding from the colony people like Roger Williams and Anne Hutchinson, whose religious views differed from her own, had driven some men of influence back to England. Others who were not members of the Congregational Church had of their accord returned to England, because in Massachusetts they could get no voice in the government. As a result, these men cherished only ill-will toward the colony which had caused them so much trouble.

Independent attitude of Massachusetts.

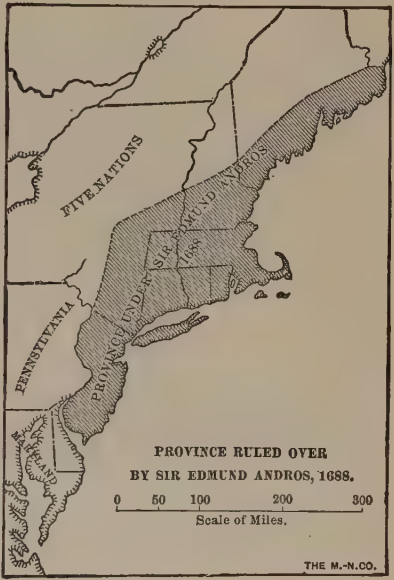
SIR EDMUND ANDROS.

Enemies of Massachusetts.

All these aggrieved persons found means of carrying into the king's court mischievous reports of the doings of the colony. For instance, it was rumored that Massachusetts had raised money without the king's sanction, and had given a hearty welcome to two of the judges who had sentenced Charles I. to death, and who afterward had escaped

Complaints against Massachusetts.

to Massachusetts. Furthermore, it was said that Massachusetts had broken the Navigation Laws, which forbade the colonies to receive foreign vessels into their ports or to trade with any except English ports or ports belonging to England. This political sin was especially grievous to English merchants, and robbed the king of his revenue.



PROVINCE RULED OVER BY SIR EDMUND ANDROS, 1688.

The time had therefore arrived for England to find means of humbling her ambitious colonists. But it was not until after a long struggle that the charter was finally annulled in 1684. The Government and Company of Massachusetts then passed out of existence.

51. Andros, the Stuart Governor in New England (1686–1689).—Charles II. died and James II. succeeded him. In 1686 he appointed Sir Edmund Andros governor of all New England and, later, of New York and New Jersey also. Andros truly represented the despotic will of his royal master. He was especially tyrannical in Massachusetts, because this colony had taken such an independent attitude toward England. He at once declared that inasmuch as the colonists had lost their charter they could no longer lay any legal claim to their lands. They could hold them only by paying money as a quit-rent to the king. The privilege of making their own laws and levying their own taxes in town meetings and General Court[1] was also taken

Tyranny of Andros in Massachusetts.

---

[1] General Court was the name for the colonial legislature. The term is still applied to the Massachusetts legislature.

away. Andros and a council of his own choosing now made the laws and levied the taxes. The colonists rebelled, but the king stood back of the governor, and resistance was useless. Freedom of the press was no longer allowed, and men were illegally thrown into prison. Indeed, the condition of the people was little short of slavery.

THE CHARTER OAK.

Andros fails to secure the Connecticut charter.

In 1687 Andros went to Hartford to secure the Connecticut charter. The conference was so long and heated that it continued till dark, when suddenly the candles were blown out and, as the traditional story goes, the charter was snatched from the table and hidden in an oak-tree[1] afterward historic as the "Charter Oak." But the colonists were obliged to give up their charter government and to acknowledge Andros as Governor.

---

[1] In 1856 the noble old tree, which stood in what is now Charter Oak Place, Hartford, was blown down. A marble tablet marks the spot.

Andros, however, pressed his tyranny too far. As soon as the people heard that King James II. was driven from the throne of England, they seized Andros, threw him into prison, and later sent him back to England. Andros in Massachusetts and Berkeley in Virginia were both intensely hated and bitterly remembered.[1]

52. Industries and Trade in New England.—As we have seen, soil and climate favored the growth of tobacco on large plantations in Virginia, where life was rural. This was not true in New England. There the soil was rocky, and the climate was too cold for the growth of tobacco. The people lived mostly in towns, usually not far from the coast. Near the towns were the farms of those who tilled the soil.

In Virginia the many sluggish rivers made it easy for vessels to reach the wharves of the plantations. In hilly New England the swift-running streams were not so navigable, but were useful for turning the wheels of mills and factories. Naturally, manufacturing on a small scale began early in New England. In addition to saw-mills and weaving-mills the New Englanders had factories for making salt, gunpowder, and glass-ware. Good fishing off the coast led to a considerable export trade in dried fish. The extensive forests furnished lumber for ship-building and commerce. At an early day New England started the ship-building industry, for which, in later New England history, the people became famous.

TO THE PUPIL

1. In what ways were the Stuart kings tyrannical? Name two or three results of their struggles with the people of England.
2. Who were the Puritans? the Pilgrims? Why did the Pilgrims wish to emigrate to America?
3. Explain how the settlers at Plymouth first made their laws. What were their relations with the Indians?

---

[1] It is only fair to say that Andros was personally a far more honorable man than Berkeley.

4. State the leading provisions of the charter which the Puritans obtained from the king. What was the township? Why would the Puritans allow none but church members to vote? What form of government did they have?
5. Name points of difference between the Pilgrims and the Puritans. Which do you like the better, the Pilgrims or the Puritans? Give your reasons.
6. How did the Massachusetts people get control of the Connecticut valley? How did Thomas Hooker and John Winthrop differ in their ideas of government? Tell all you can about the Connecticut Constitution.
7. Why did the Puritans send Roger Williams out of their colony? Subject for debate: Resolved, that the Puritans were right in their treatment of Roger Williams.
8. What were the causes and results of the New England Confederacy? Do you think that if you had been a Puritan you would have joined in persecuting the Quakers? Give your reasons.
9. What enemies did Massachusetts make? What complaints did they raise against the colony? Compare the rule of Andros in Massachusetts with that of Berkeley in Virginia. In what respects were these governors like the Stuart kings?
10. How did the life and occupations of the people in Virginia differ from those of the people in Massachusetts?
11. Read Austin's Standish of Standish and Longfellow's Courtship of Miles Standish.

NOTES

New Hampshire (1623).—Two years after the Pilgrims landed, the Council of Plymouth granted to Sir Ferdinando Gorges and Captain John Mason the territory between the Merrimac and the Kennebec Rivers. In 1623 fishing stations were begun at Dover and Portsmouth. Later, Mason and Gorges divided the territory between them. Mason took the part west of the Piscataqua, which he named New Hampshire after his own county of Hampshire in England; Gorges took the part east of the same river, naming it Maine. The proprietors left the early settlers to do pretty much as they liked. Massachusetts claimed all the territory, but to make certain her claim bought out the heirs of Gorges (1677) for $6,000. Maine continued as a part of Massachusetts till 1820. New Hampshire remained for a long time under the protection of Massachusetts. After severing connection with Massachusetts three times, New Hampshire became a separate royal colony in 1741, and so continued until the Revolution.

CHAPTER VI

THE DUTCH IN NEW YORK AND THE QUAKERS IN PENNSYLVANIA (1609–1689)

REFERENCES: **Scribner's** Popular History of the United States, II. and III.; **Wright's** Children's Stories in American History; **Drake's** Making of Virginia and the Middle Colonies; **Richardson's** History of Our Country; **Morris's** Half Hours with American History; **Andrews's** United States, I.

OUTSIDE READINGS: **Fisher's** Colonial Era; **Doyle's** English Colonies; **Lodge's** Short History of the English Colonies in America; **Thwaites's** The Colonies; **Bancroft's** United States, I.; **Winsor's** Narrative and Critical History, III.; **Fiske's** The Dutch and Quaker Colonies in America; **Buell's** William Penn.

FICTION: **Irving's** Knickerbocker's History of New York.

53. Henry Hudson Seeks the Northwest Passage (1609).—In 1609 Henry Hudson, an English navigator, was employed by the Dutch East India Company to sail in search of a short northwest passage to India. Holland was then one of the greatest commercial countries in the world, and, like the other great European powers, desired to find a shorter route for the trade that was making her people rich. Hudson crossed the Atlantic, and with a crew of twenty men, in the *Half-moon*, sailed up the river which now bears his name. He held the familiar belief of his time, that the East Indies could be reached by a short water-route through North America, which was supposed to be a narrow continent. But after sailing as far as the present site of Albany he could go no farther, and gave up his plan of finding the East Indies by that route. Although he did not find a short passage to the Pacific, he discovered the Hudson River, which was a great water-way for the Dutch fur traders coming later. He also won the good-will of the Indians.

It was worth much to the Dutch that Hudson came to the Indians as a friend. The same year Champlain, a French explorer and trader, made deadly enemies of these same Indians, the Iroquois, who gave him great trouble and hindered the French in their work of exploration and colonization.

Hudson wins the good-will of the Indians for the Dutch.

54. **Dutch Claims to New Netherland.**—During the next few years Dutch traders continued to visit the region of the Hudson, and in 1615 the Dutch States-General gave a charter to a company of merchants. In this charter the new country was named New Netherland. A small trading-house was erected on the present site of Albany, and a similar one was built on Manhattan Island at the mouth of the river.

A DUTCH OFFICER OF THE SEVENTEENTH CENTURY.

Real colonizing did not begin until 1623, when the West India Company, which had been chartered two years before for purposes of settlement and trade, began to send out colonists. Some of these settled on the Delaware, or South River, some on the Hudson, or North River, some on Long Island, and a few remained on Manhattan Island. The Dutch built Fort Orange, where Albany now stands. In 1626 Peter Minuit, governor of New Netherland, founded New Amsterdam (now New York City) on Manhattan Island, which he bought from the Indians for trinkets worth twenty-four dollars. These early colonies opened a successful trade with the Indians, with whom they kept on good terms, but they did not cultivate the soil and, therefore, their settlements did not thrive.

Dutch settlements and forts.

55. **The Patroons.**—To encourage emigration the States-General of Holland granted to the company a new charter by which the patroon system was established. This system permitted any member of the Dutch West India

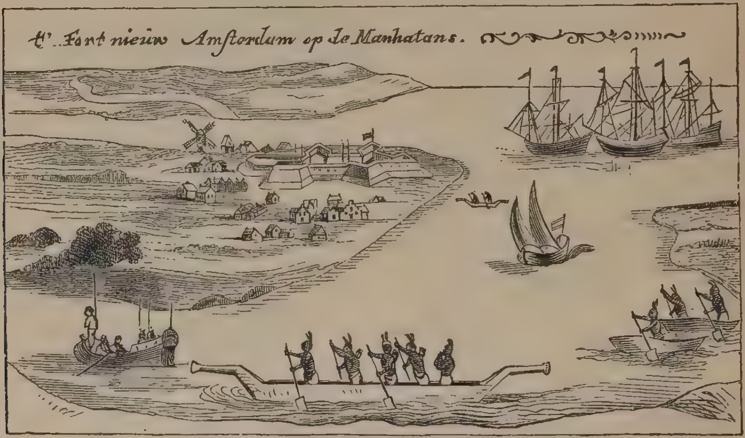
A GROUP OF SEVENTEENTH CENTURY DUTCHMEN.

Company who would, within four years, bring into the colony fifty settlers, to own a landed estate with a water front of sixteen miles if on but one side of the Hudson, or of eight miles if on both sides. This great land-owner or patroon might extend his estate inland as far as he thought desirable. In all cases the land was to be fairly bought of the Indians. These patroons exercised almost absolute power over their tenants. In fact the patroons resembled feudal lords, and the tenants resembled the vassals of feudal times. It should be noted that the patroons were each required to support a minister and a school teacher, in order that religious education should not suffer. This wise provision indicated the sturdy, wholesome character of the Dutch people.

Power and duties of the patroons.

56. The Dutch Win the Friendship of the Iroquois Indians and thus Secure an Extensive Fur Trade.—By treating the Iroquois justly the Dutch won the warm friendship of these powerful Indians, who engaged in an extensive fur trade with them. By honest dealing the Dutch fur-traders avoided costly Indian wars, and easily secured all the furs coming through the hands of the Iroquois from numerous tribes around the Great Lakes and between the Ohio and the Mississippi. The results of this friendship were important: (1) Dutch commerce was enriched; (2) the Iroquois received for their furs the firearms which enabled them all the more successfully to prevent the French from getting possession of New York; (3) unwittingly the Dutch were doing the English a great favor, for after New Netherland passed into the hands of England, the Dutch remained along the Hudson as before, and helped to maintain the fur trade with the Iroquois, much to the advantage of England.

Results of the friendship of the Iroquois for the Dutch.


t' Fort nieuw Amsterdam op de Manhatans.

THE EARLIEST PICTURE OF NEW AMSTERDAM.

The government.

57. New Netherland Under Dutch Governors[1] (1623–1664).—There was less political freedom in New Netherland than in New England. The people could not make their own laws nor levy their own taxes. The town meeting, which was such a characteristic feature of New England life, had no existence here. Religious freedom was all that the most liberal could desire. As Holland welcomed the Pilgrims when driven by persecution from

---

[1] New Netherland had four Dutch governors: Peter Minuit, Walter von Twiller, William Kieft, and Peter Stuyvesant. Stuyvesant was the only governor worthy of the name. With great reluctance did he yield to the English.

England, the Dutch in New Netherland welcomed the victims of Puritan intolerance in New England. People from all parts of Europe were attracted to New Netherland, and a very mixed population was the result. It was said that in 1643 eighteen languages were spoken in New Amsterdam. In such a mixed community there could not be the same intense loyalty to the ruling power as if all the people had been of one nation.

The mixed population.

58. New Netherland Becomes New York (1664).—The Dutch were now, as the Spaniards had been the century before, the great naval and commercial rivals of England. It was natural that England should be jealous of Dutch trade. The Dutch held the best harbor on the Atlantic coast and the best highway to the Indian fur trade in the interior. No other river equalled the Hudson in this respect; its advantages were superb. Moreover, the Dutch colonies separated the English colonies north and south, and England, not foreseeing that the union of the English colonies could prove disastrous to the mother country, conceived the idea that the intrusion of the Dutch was a great obstacle to their growth.

Why England wished to get control of New Netherland.

HENRY HUDSON'S *HALF MOON* ON THE HUDSON.

Therefore, after allowing the Dutch to remain fifty years in the territory they had settled, England suddenly brought forward her claim to the land by the discovery of the Cabots. Accordingly, in 1664, while Holland and England were at peace, Charles II. sent over a fleet to attack the Dutch colony at New Amsterdam.[1] Governor Stuyvesant made frantic appeals to the people to assist in warding off the attack, but the Dutch were outnumbered,[2] and resistance was useless. Without a blow New Amsterdam fell into the hands of the English, and with it the whole of New Netherland. Charles II. gave the newly conquered territory to his brother, the Duke of York, and changed the name of both the colony and its capital to New York.

The Dutch yield to the English.

Dutch colonization, like Spanish, failed, and for a similar reason. The Spaniards were allured by gold, the Dutch by trade. They both lacked the colonizing instinct which puts home-making before wealth-getting. Though the Dutch failed as a nation in colonizing America, their influence was indelibly impressed for good on the part of the country which they settled.

Why the Dutch failed.

59. New York Under English Governors.—New York prospered under English rule, but the people there were disappointed because they were not given as much political freedom as the English colonists enjoyed in New England. The feeling became so strong that in 1683 they were allowed an assembly elected by the freeholders, which could meet with the governor and council to make laws and levy taxes.

In 1686, however, the Duke of York, having become king, took away this representative government, and two years later annexed New York to New England, under the rule of Andros.[3] The later English governors were so exasperating and tyrannical, that a people's party arose in the colony. When in 1689 news came that James II. had been driven from the throne, the people of New York, like

---

[1] Connecticut readily came forward to assist in defeating her old enemy in the Connecticut valley and on Long Island, where English settlers had come into collision with the Dutch.

[2] At this time the population of New Amsterdam was about fifteen hundred, and of New Netherland about seven thousand.

[3] Andros, while governor of New England, New York, and New Jersey (1686–1689), remained in New England. Nicholson represented him in New York as lieutenant-governor.

AN EARLY DUTCH MAN OF WAR.

From a model in the Musee de Louvre, Paris.

their New England neighbors, put aside the king's government and established one of their own. Their party was headed by Jacob Leisler, an energetic tradesman without education or political experience. He made many mistakes and aroused the opposition of his own party, but he managed to hold office for three years. The people finally appealed to the king (William III.), who sent over in 1691 a new governor. Leisler was tried for treason and hanged. With the new governor, the assembly was restored, and from this time the colony was governed in a constitutional way.

Leisler leads an uprising of the people against Andros.

60. The Quakers in England.—The direct cause of the settlement of Pennsylvania was the bitter persecution of the Quakers in England.[1] They had no respect for forms and ceremonies; they were extreme dissenters from the Established Church, and did not believe in paying taxes for its support; they would use no titles of honor to any man, not even the king; they counted it a sin to take oath even in a court of justice, or to pay taxes for war.

WILLIAM PENN.

61. William Penn and the Quakers Settle Pennsylvania (1681).—William Penn was the most illustrious convert of the Quakers in the seventeenth century. He was a young man of wealth, education, culture, and political promise. His father, Admiral Penn, had been active in bringing about the restoration of the Stuarts, and was therefore held in high esteem by King Charles II. and his court. Penn early cherished an idea of founding a settlement for the Quakers in America. He had taken a leading interest in a colony in West Jersey, where many Quakers had found a refuge.[2] The colony was not altogether satisfactory, and he was led to obtain a grant of land from the king, in payment of a claim of $80,000 which he had inherited from his father.

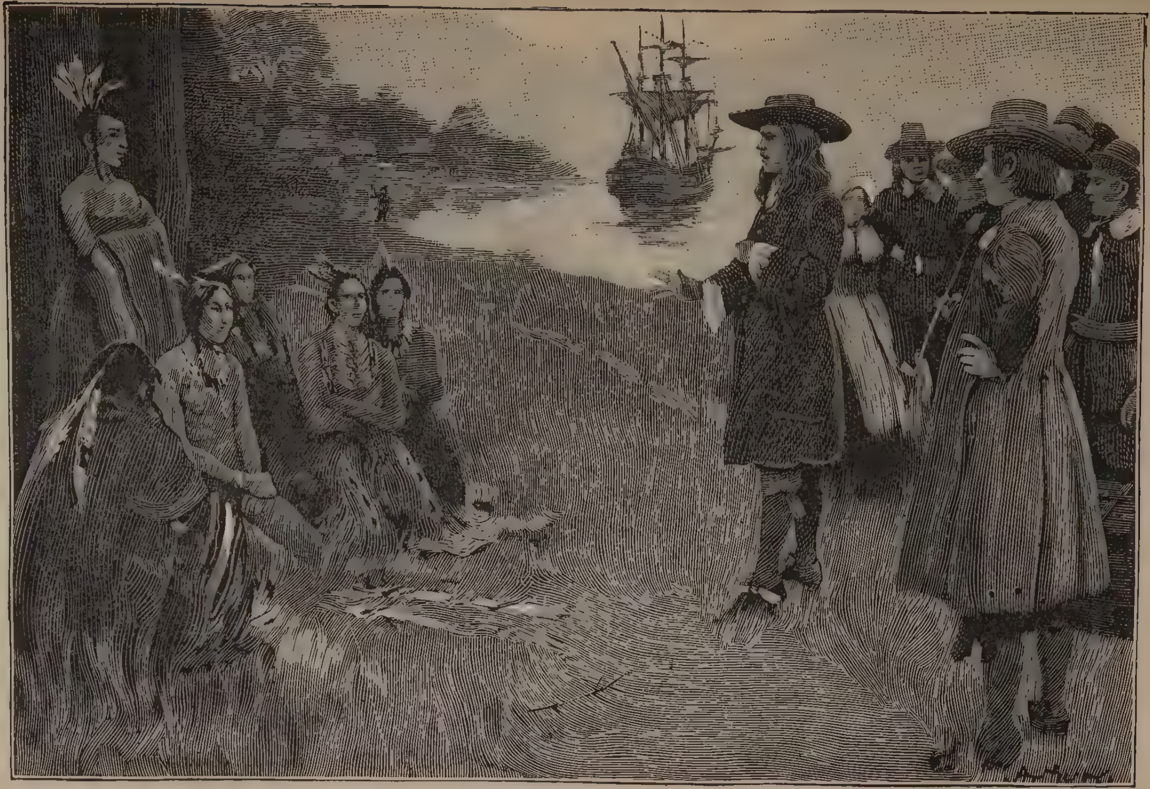
Penn becomes proprietor of Pennsylvania.

The king, always short of money, was glad to discharge his debt in this way. He granted Penn a large tract of land west of the Delaware River (1681), and named it Pennsylvania in honor of his friend, the admiral. Penn was made proprietor of the new colony, and by the terms of the charter, which was drawn by his own hand, the proprietor, with the consent of the freemen, was to make all necessary laws. Having obtained the charter, Penn offered land on liberal terms, and promised the settlers a popular government,

---

[1] At one time there were 4,000 Quakers in English prisons.

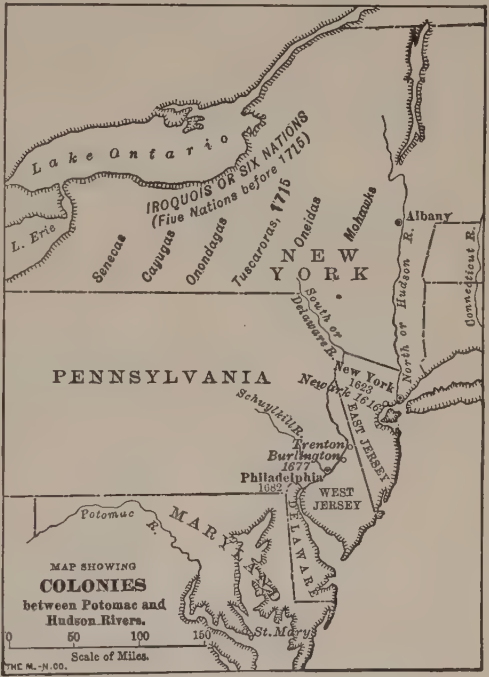
[2] Some of the New England Quakers came here, and many came from England.



PENN'S TREATY WITH THE INDIANS.

with justice to all regardless of religious belief. The people of his faith throughout England responded with such enthusiasm that he sent out a large colony.

62. The Quakers Live in Peace with the Indians.—William Penn came to America in 1682, and in the following year he laid out the city of Philadelphia on a tract of land lying between the Delaware and Schuylkill Rivers. Under the spreading branches of an elm-tree[1] he made a treaty[2] of peace with the Indians. By this treaty he paid them fairly for the land and made them presents. So honest were the Quaker colonists of Pennsylvania in all their dealings with the natives that for a long time the highest compliment an Indian could pay a white man was to liken him to Penn. They kept their treaty with them for sixty years.



63. Penn's Liberal Government.—The government was very liberal. The proprietor named the governor, but the people chose the members of the council and the assembly. Every tax-payer and freeholder was to have the right to vote. The first laws reflect the benevolence of Penn and his people. These laws provided that the Indians should be treated kindly; that each child should be taught a trade; that criminals in prison should be kept busy with some kind of work; and that all public officers should be professing Christians.

---

[1] This tree was blown down in 1810. A monument marks the spot where it stood.

[2] Penn said to the Indians: "The friendship between you and me I will not compare to a chain, for that might rust, or the falling tree might break. We are the same as if one man's body were to be divided into two parts. We are all one flesh and blood." When the Indians handed to Penn the wampum belt of peace, they said: "We will live in love and peace with William Penn as long as the sun and the moon shall endure."

64. **Growth of Pennsylvania.**—In spite of internal feuds, some slight and others serious, the colony continued to prosper. The climate was good, the soil was fertile, and rivers offered easy communication. These natural advantages, together with the liberal spirit, the good laws, and the peaceful relations with the Indians, caused the settlement to grow rapidly.[1] Colonists were not afraid to come where others had opened the way. Besides English and Swedes, there were many from Wales, Holland, and Germany. Industries were built up, and wealth increased with population. Thus Penn's "Holy Experiment" proved to be successful, and Pennsylvania took her place among the foremost of the original colonies.[2]

Mixed character of the population.

TO THE PUPIL

1. Describe Hudson's attempt to find the Northwest passage to India. What advantage did he gain for the Dutch by winning the good-will of the Iroquois Indians? How did Champlain make these same Indians deadly enemies of the French? In what way did the friendship of these Indians to the Dutch aid the English later? Note the importance of the fur trade.
2. Bear in mind the mixed population in New York and in Pennsylvania, for you can use this knowledge to a good purpose when you study the Revolution.

---

[1] In three years Philadelphia had gained more in population than New York had in a half century. Toward the close of the century Philadelphia was a "noble and beautiful" city, as a history of that time describes it, containing two thousand houses, most of them "stately," built of brick.

[2] Although Penn's colony prospered, it caused him much anxiety and the loss of a large fortune.

3. Why did England wish to secure New Netherland? What does the series of years, 1609-1664, cover in the history of New Netherland? Why did Dutch colonization fail?
4. What was the condition of New York under the English governors? What led to a popular uprising under the leadership of Leisler?
5. Find interesting facts about the following: The Quakers, William Penn, his charter, his liberal ideas of government in the new colony, and his relations with the Indians. Write five minutes on one of these.
6. You began with 1492: you have now reached 1689, about two centuries later. Learn these dates thoroughly: 1492, 1588, 1689. 1492-1898: observe that 1689 is almost half-way between the two. How many of the thirteen original colonies had been settled before 1689? Make out a chart with the following facts in separate columns: Name of colony, when settled, where settled, by whom settled.
7. You have seen how the Spanish, the English, and the Dutch tried to establish colonies. In the "Notes" you will find an account of similar attempts made by the Swedes.
8. It would be a good plan for you to make out a chronological chart, beginning with 1492 and ending with 1689, including dates of principal events in three parallel lines, one for the Spanish, one for the English, and one for the Dutch.

NOTES

New Jersey (1618).—As New Jersey was at first included in New Netherland, the Dutch erected, as early as 1618, a small fort at Bergen, on the west bank of the Hudson River. When in 1664 New Netherland passed into the hands of the English, the Duke of York sold the land between the Hudson River and the Delaware to his friends, Lord Berkeley and Sir George Carteret. He named the province New Jersey, after the island of Jersey, which Carteret had bravely defended for the king's father, Charles I., during the Civil War in England. The first permanent English settlement was made at Elizabethtown in 1665. As the people were allowed freedom of worship and a part in making the laws, a good class of settlers was attracted to New Jersey. The Indians were so kindly treated that they gave no trouble.

In 1674 the province was divided into East and West Jersey, for many years known as "The Jerseys." By 1682 both the Jerseys had been sold to a number of Quakers, among whom was William Penn. There were now so many proprietors that much confusion over land titles resulted. The proprietors therefore sold in 1702 all their claims to the English Crown. From that time the Jerseys were known as New Jersey and were united to New York. New Jersey and New York now had the same governor, but each province had its own assembly. In 1738 New Jersey was made a royal province, which it continued to be until the Revolution. Benjamin Franklin's son was the last royal governor.

Delaware (1638).—In 1638 a number of Swedes and Finlanders landed near the present site of Wilmington, Delaware, and built a fort which they called Christina, in honor of their queen. Later, the Swedes made settlements along the Delaware River as far as the site of Philadelphia. Their colony they called New Sweden. But the Dutch claimed all this region as a part of New Netherland, and in 1655 they sailed up the Delaware, captured all the Swedish forts, and made New Sweden a part of New Netherland.

When in 1664 the English took New Netherland from the Dutch, Delaware became an English possession. In 1682 William Penn, wishing to secure a free outlet to the ocean, bought from the Duke of York this territory, then known as the "three lower counties on the Delaware." Delaware then became a part of Pennsylvania. In 1703 the people of Delaware were allowed a separate assembly; but they had the same governor as Pennsylvania until the Revolution.

CHAPTER VII

LIFE AMONG THE INDIANS

REFERENCES: **Scribner's** Popular History of the United States, I., II., III.; **Drake's** Making of New England; **Drake's** Making of the Great West; **Wright's** Children's Stories in American History; **Morris's** Half Hours with American History, I.; **Richardson's** History of Our Country.

OUTSIDE READINGS: **Catlin's** North American Indians; **Chapin's** Land of the Cliff Dwellers; **Fiske's** Discovery of America; **Ellis's** Red Man and White Man; **Drake's** Indian History for Young Folks; **Parkman's** Conspiracy of Pontiac; **Hart's** Colonial Children.

POETRY: **Longfellow's** Hiawatha.

65. The People Columbus Found in America.—When Columbus came to America he found a people very different from the Spaniards or other Europeans. As he believed he had reached the Indies he called these people Indians. They were alike in having high cheek-bones, black eyes, coarse black hair, and beardless faces. But with respect to their size, dress, houses, and manner of life there was as much difference as there was among people living in various countries of Europe.

66. Division into Families of the Indians East of the Mississippi.—The Indians whom the French and English found living East of the Mississippi were divided into three great families. First, there were the Southern, or Maskoki, Indians, who were spread over the country extending from the Tennessee River to the Gulf of Mexico and from the Mississippi to the Atlantic. The most important tribes were the Chickasaws, Choctaws, Cherokees, Creeks, and Seminoles. Secondly, there were the Iroquois Indians,

AN INDIAN CAMP.

who included the Five Nations[1] in Central New York, the Tuscaroras in North Carolina, the Hurons north of Lake Erie, and the Eries south of it. Thirdly, all the other tribes spreading northward from the Tennessee and eastward from the Mississippi were Algonquins.

67. **Character.**—The Indian was a true child of the forest. He had a wild love of liberty, which refused control by any

---

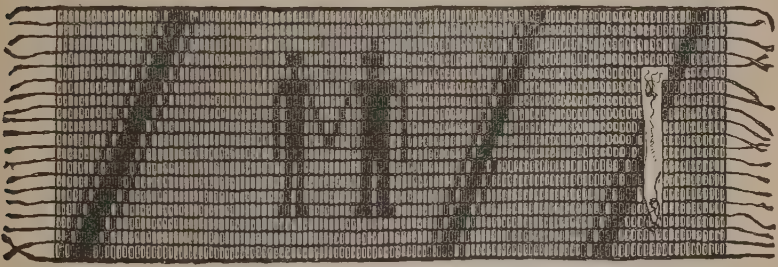
[1] The Five Nations included the Mohawks, Oneidas, Onondagas, Cayugas, and Senecas, who formed a loose confederacy. The Five Nations were very powerful Indians till their defeat by Frontenac in 1697. They firmly controlled the Mohawk River valley and prevented the French from using the best natural highways from Lake Erie to the Ohio. Their population at the time of their greatest strength was under 20,000. After the Tuscaroras from North Carolina joined them in 1715 they were known as the Six Nations.

will except his own. He was cruel to his enemy and often tortured him or burned him alive. But the Indian was generous and kind. In the midst of famine he would cheerfully share the last morsel with a fellow-sufferer, and in the hour of danger would lay down his life for a friend.

68. Occupations.—The squaw did nearly all the work. She dug the soil with shells and pointed sticks, gathered the crops, dressed skins, dried meat, and made moccasins and various articles of clothing out of the skins of animals. The Indian was first of all a warrior. His weapons were the war-club, the bow and arrow, and the tomahawk. A sharpened stone served for the blade of his tomahawk, and bone or flint pointed his arrows. He was also fond of hunting and fishing, and to assist him in these occupations he made the canoe and the snow-shoe.

What the squaw did.

Indian weapons.

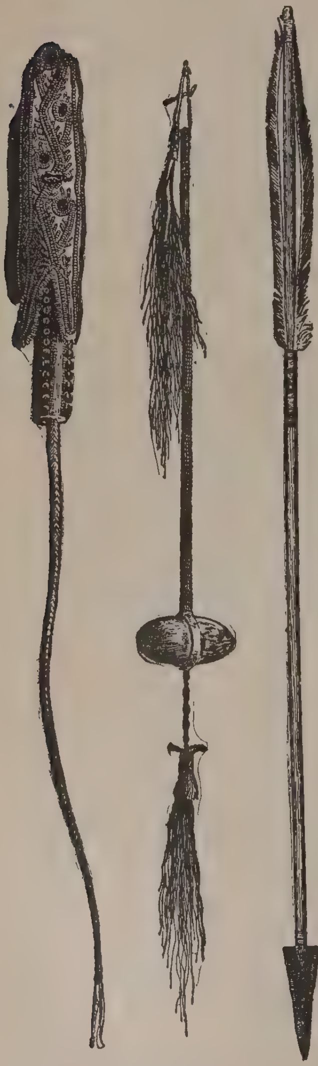


WAMPUM RECEIVED BY PENN FROM THE INDIANS.

69. The Canoe and the Snow-shoe.—In the fishing season he sought the side of lake or stream, and he was always eager to go where game was thickest and where the scalps of his enemies could be taken in greatest numbers. The canoe was therefore a necessity. Before the whites came it was to him horse, steamboat, and railroad, all in one. In travelling on land he followed the trail of the deer or the buffalo. But water-ways were so much easier that he travelled ten miles on water to one on land. Between the water-ways there were "carrying places," or portages, over which he had to carry the

The canoes and the water-ways

canoe and all its load of fur and other goods. In other words, sometimes the canoe carried its owner and sometimes the owner carried his canoe. It was therefore necessary that it should be both light and strong. Such was the birch-bark canoe, which was made by stripping off the bark of the birch in one piece and carefully fitting it over a light wooden frame. Another Indian invention of great use was the snow-shoe, which was three or four feet in length, curved and tapering, and enabled the wearer to go along easily on the surface of the snow at the rate of forty miles a day.

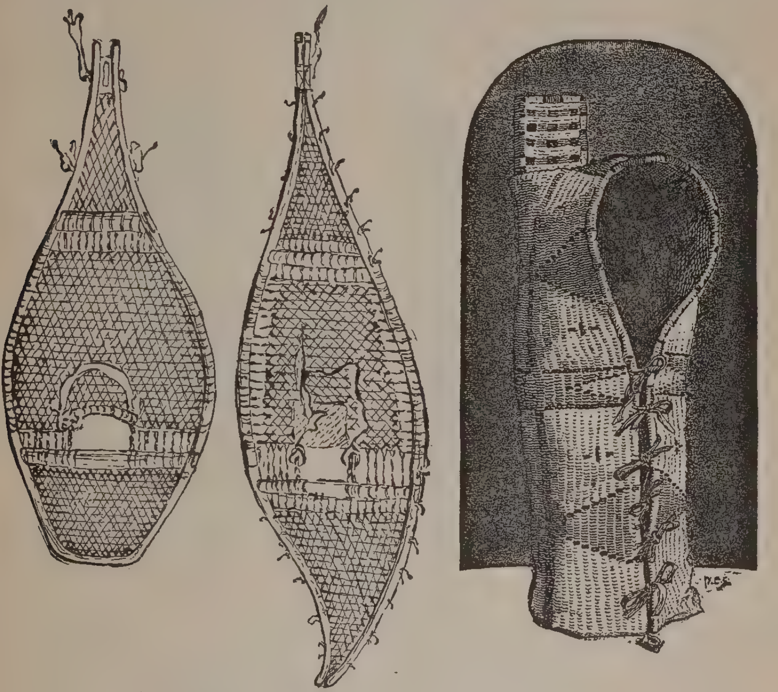


INDIAN WHIP (QUIRT), WAR-CLUB, AND HUNTING-ARROW.

70. Wampum.—Wampum consisted of small shells, or beads made from shells, perforated and strung together, and often wrought into belts. The Indians used wampum for personal adornment and also for more serious purposes, such as summoning the tribes to war, and recording treaties, laws, and speeches. Ten thousand beads have been known to be worked into a single war-belt four inches wide. The colors and the patterns of the belt varied with its purpose, peculiar signs and figures enabling the Indian to remember certain parts of a speech or a treaty. This was necessary because the Indian could not write. Apart from other uses it was valued also as money.

The Happy Hunting Grounds.

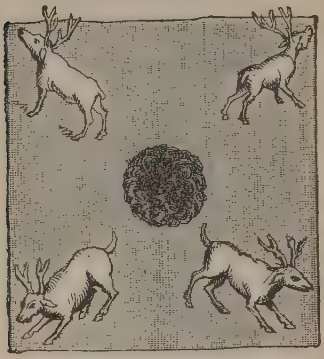
71. Religion.—The Indian believed that all Indians, good and bad, would after this life go to the Happy Hunting Grounds. This was his name for Heaven. Life there would be the same as life in this world, but without pain or trouble of any kind. It is thought that the practice of scalping enemies killed in battle was associated with the belief that the loss of the scalp prevented the spirit from entering the Happy Hunting Grounds. The Indian would therefore risk almost anything to save the dead body of his chief or his friend from being scalped by the enemy. As in the Happy Hunting Grounds he would need arms to defend himself, these and



INDIAN SNOW-SHOES AND PAPPOOSE-CASE.

other things of use in this life were buried with him for use in the other life.

72. The Clan and the Tribe.—According to language and locality the Indians were separated into families, such as the Maskoki, Algonquin, and Iroquois. According to government the family was separated into distinct tribes, and again, by relationship more or less remote, the tribe was separated into clans. Each clan had its name, usually that of some bird, beast, or reptile, and the picture of this animal became the peculiar emblem or "totem" of the clan. The animal represented in the totem of each clan was supposed to favor and protect that clan and was sometimes tattooed on the breast.



TOTEM OF THE FIVE NATIONS.

TOTEM OF THE ILLINOIS.

The totem.

Every clan selected a sachem, or civil ruler, and at least one war-chief. The sachems exercised but little authority. They acted as advisers and, when assembled together in tribal councils, freely discussed important questions. The Indian government was therefore democratic, each warrior being to a large degree his own master.

Indian government democratic.

73. Communal Living.—The Indians knew but little of real estate. The tribes occupied the land but did not own it in the sense in which white men own land now. They had very little personal property except such objects as weapons, trinkets, and clothing, and held all other property in common. Their architecture was adapted to their communal life. Interesting illustrations of this are to be found in the "Long Houses" of the Iroquois. These houses, made of wood and bark, were in some cases one hundred feet long, and would accommodate as many as twenty families. As a rule, each house was occupied by families of which the mothers were members of the same clan. Whatever these families obtained by hunting or by the rude culture of the soil they owned in common, and all their food they kept in a common storehouse.

The "Long Houses" of the Iroquois.

TOTEM OF THE SIOUX.

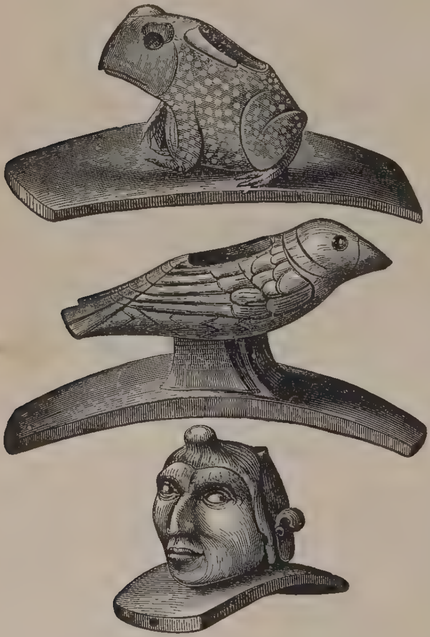
TOTEM OF THE HURONS.

74. **The Mound Builders.**—Many thousands of mounds have been found in Ohio and in other parts of the United States. Some have the shape of birds, fishes, and reptiles; some of the square, circle, and other mathematical figures. The Big Elephant Mound, a few miles below the mouth of the Wisconsin River, is 135 feet long; the Serpent Mound, in Ohio, is 1,000 feet long, with a gracefully curving body. These mounds have gateways, outlooks, and parallel lines, showing that they were probably used as fortifications. Of late years very careful explorers have been at work among these mounds, opening many of them and taking out relics. These relics include kettles,

The mounds.

pipes, axes, arrowheads, tools for weaving and spinning, and other things. They have been examined with the greatest care, because they help us to understand what kind of people made and used them. At one time it was thought that the Mound Builders were a people of a very superior civilization, because of the artistic skill they showed in their sculptured relics. Accordingly, the Mound Builders were spoken of as a "lost race" that numbered many millions and constituted a mighty empire.

Relics found in the mounds.



CARVED PIPES FROM AN INDIAN MOUND.

Mound Builders probably American Indians.

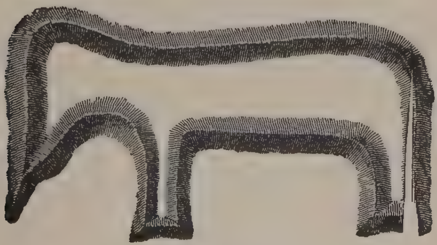
The character of the mounds and of the relics found in them leaves no doubt that they were the work of various tribes, differing from each other quite as much as Indian tribes differ now. The Cherokees, who are known to have built mounds some time after the whites came to America, probably built those found in the western part of North Carolina and the eastern part of Tennessee. It seems altogether probable that the Mound Builders were nothing more than American Indians, like those found by the English and the French colonists.

75. **Number of Indians.**—There are at present about 250,000 Indians in the United States. Very likely the number is quite as large now as it was when the English and the French began to plant settlements. It has been thought

that the coming of the whites prevented the destruction of large numbers of Indians by war and famine.

76. Influence of the Indians Upon the Whites.—The influence of the Indians upon the whites, especially from the time of the early settlements to the Revolution, was considerable. They often saved struggling settlers from starvation by furnishing them food, and they taught the whites how to cultivate Indian corn. But, as we shall see in later chapters of this book, the principal influence of the Indians upon the whites was through the numerous Indian wars, which helped the colonists to know one another better, and taught them what they most needed to learn—the advantage of union. In fighting against a common danger the colonies were brought into closer sympathy with one another. Let us briefly refer to two of those wars, the Pequot War and King Philip's War, both of which were fought before the beginning of the Intercolonial Wars.

Indian wars taught the colonists the advantage of union.



BIG ELEPHANT MOUND.

CHAPTER VIII

EARLY INDIAN WARS

77. The Pequot War (1637).—The leading cause of each of the Indian wars in New England was the same—the feeling on the part of the Indians that the whites were getting possession of the lands, and would in time drive the Red Men away from their hunting grounds. The Indians did not at first understand that sales of land meant their giving it up entirely. But even when they understood the nature of land sales, they thought the whites had taken advantage of them.

Leading cause of early Indian wars.

When the people from Massachusetts settled in Connecticut in 1636 they found themselves neighbors to a strong, ferocious tribe of Indians, called Pequots, living in the eastern part of the State. These Indians attacked the little settlement of Wethersfield, where they killed a number of persons. Captain John Mason, with ninety men from the towns of Hartford, Wethersfield, and Windsor, started in pursuit. The party came to anchor in Narragansett Bay about three weeks after leaving Hartford. Mason marched westward across Rhode Island, and at the end of two days halted the expedition just north of the present town of Stonington. Before daybreak next morning he and his men surprised the Indian fort, and destroyed nearly all the Indians in it, consisting of from 400 to 600 men, women, and children. The war resulted in the destruction of the Pequot tribe, and so awed the Indians in that part of the country that there was no more trouble with them for about forty years. Then came King Philip's War, which lasted two years and was much more extensive than the Pequot War.

Captain Mason's expedition against the Pequots.

78. King Philip's War (1675–1676).—King Philip, chief of the Wampanoags, a Rhode Island tribe, was a leader of much ability. He united the New England Indians from Maine to the Hudson River in a league whose aim was to destroy all the whites in New England. The war broke out in Swansea, Massachusetts, and spread through the towns in the southern and western parts of the State. Deerfield and Hadley were among the places pillaged and burned. The war was stubbornly fought, and finally ended with the death of King Philip, who was shot while trying to escape capture at Mount Hope (Bristol), Rhode Island, which was his home. The remnant of his tribe were either killed or sold into slavery, and the power of the New England Indians was completely broken. The war was a severe strain upon the New England colonists. Six hundred of them were killed, and thirteen of their towns were destroyed. It

King Philip's purpose.

INDIANS CARRYING CANOES OVER A PORTAGE.

Results of King Philip's War.

cost the colonists a large sum of money and imposed heavy burdens upon them in the way of taxation

But the Indians having the greatest influence upon colonial development were the Iroquois. These we have already mentioned in their relation to the Dutch, and we shall now speak of their immediate influence upon the French and the English colonies.

TO THE PUPIL

1. Why were the canoe and the snow-shoe of great value to the Indian? What was his religious belief? Tell what you can about communal living; about the Mound Builders.
2. Why did the absence of such animals as horses and oxen retard the progress of the Indians? Discuss the influence of the Indians upon the whites.
3. What were the causes and results of the Pequot War? of King Philip's War? Impersonating King Philip, write an account of the wrongs you suffered at the hands of the whites.
4. Subject for debate: Resolved, that the Indians have been unjustly treated by the white people.
5. If you rightly study the facts about the Indians, you will be prepared to understand the Indian problem which the American people are now trying to solve. As in the case of all other problems of to-day, we study the past that we may learn how to interpret the present. Even the Indian question has two sides. Read the first chapter of Parkman's Conspiracy of Pontiac; also Longfellow's Hiawatha.

CHAPTER IX

FRENCH EXPLORATIONS

REFERENCES: **Scribner's** Popular History of the United States, I. and II.; **Wright's** Children's Stories in American History; **Drake's** Making of the Great West; **Drake's** Making of New England; **Morris's** Half Hours with American History; **Richardson's** History of Our Country.

OUTSIDE READINGS: **Parkman's** La Salle and the Discovery of the Great West; **Parkman's** Pioneers of France in the New World; **Winsor's** Narrative and Critical History, IV.; **Winsor's** The Westward Movement; **Bancroft's** United States, II.; **Hinsdale's** Old Northwest; **Hildreth's** United States, II.; **Thwaites's** Father Marquette; **Wilson's** A History of the American People, II.; **Dix's** Champlain.

FICTION: **Catherwood's** Romance of Dollard; **Catherwood's** Story of Tonty.

Cartier discovers the St. Lawrence (1534).

79. The French Discover and Explore the St. Lawrence.—By reason of the discoveries of Verrazano (1524) France laid claim to the Atlantic coast between Cape Fear, North Carolina, and Newfoundland. Ten years later Jacques Cartier discovered the St. Lawrence and sailed up the river as far as an Indian village on the present site of Montreal. He returned in 1540 and in the name of King Francis I. took possession of Canada, as the Indians called the country. Immediately attempts were made to colonize, but they were unsuccessful. In 1603 the French again attempted settlement in the region extending from New York harbor to Cape Breton, called Acadia,[1] and again they failed.

But these failures only shed the greater lustre about the name of Samuel de Champlain, the "Father of New France." When he first penetrated the St. Lawrence val-

---

[1] Acadia was afterward restricted in meaning to its present boundaries.

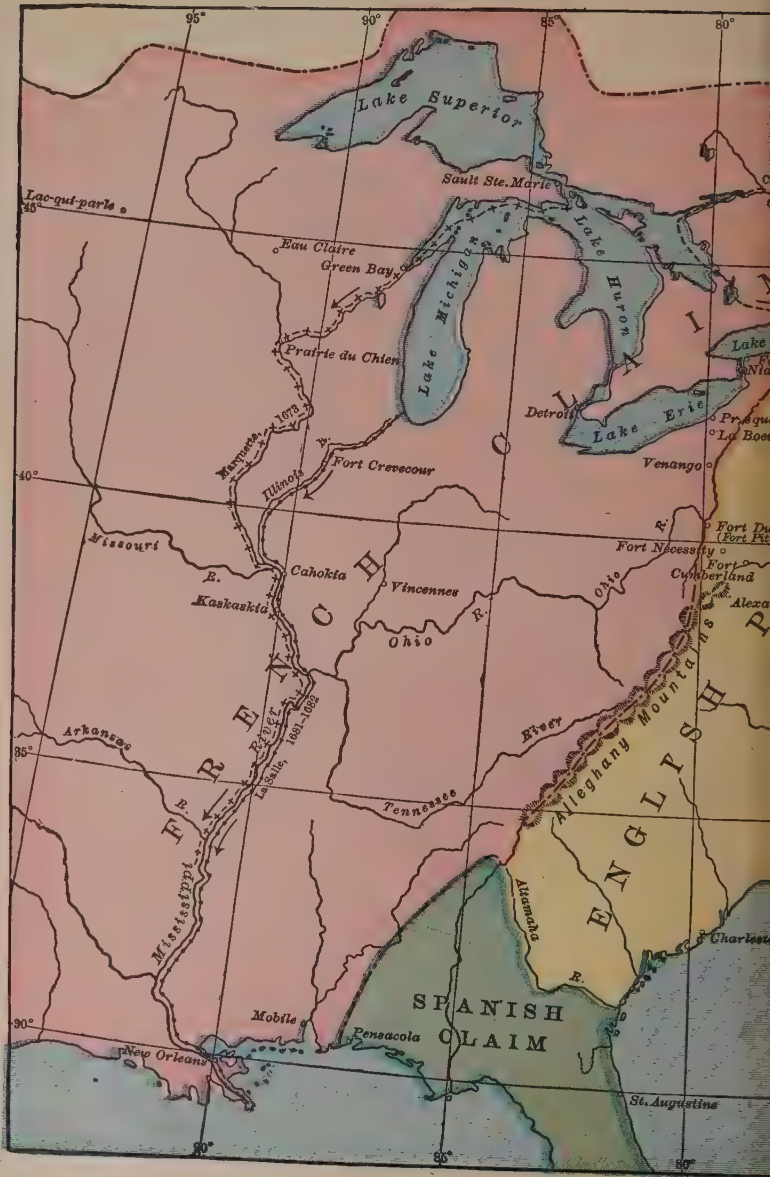
FRENCH SOLDIERS OF THE TIME OF THE FRENCH EXPLORATION.

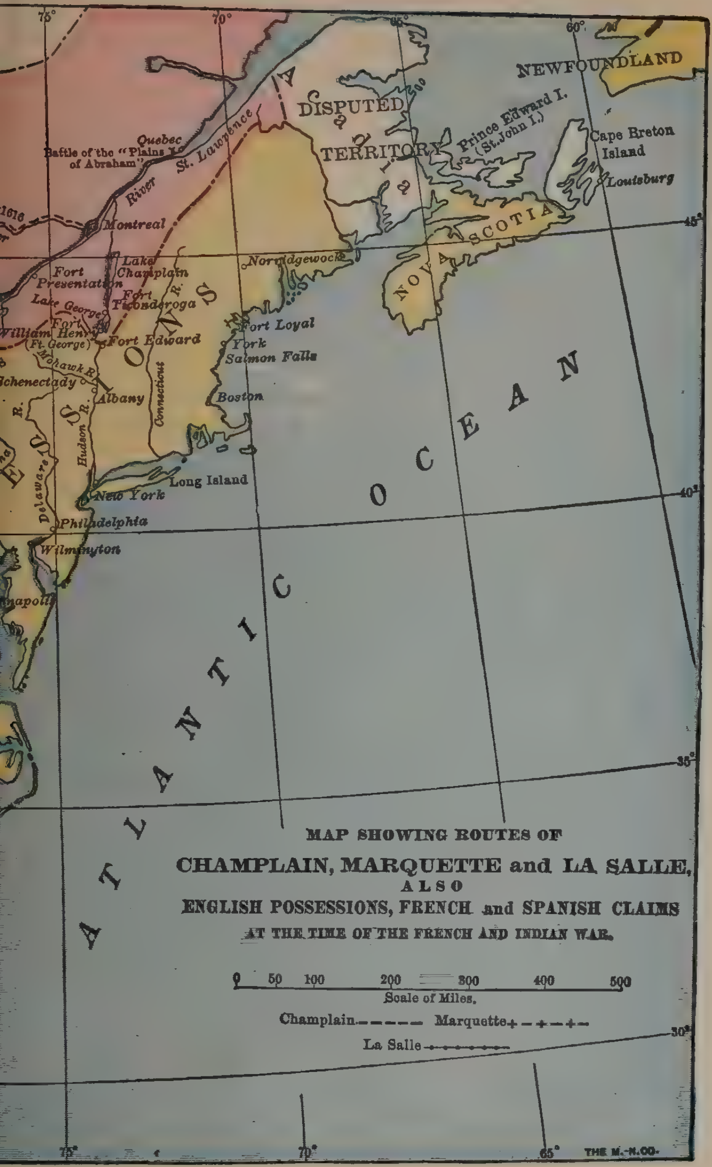
Champlain makes the first permanent French settlement in Canada.

ley he was impressed with its great beauty and its valuable resources, for it was rich in forests and furs. Next to the gold and silver, the fur trade furnished the best means of securing the coveted wealth which the New World offered. Champlain was a man of culture and refinement, earnest, patriotic, and religious. He wished to extend the glory of France and the Catholic Church. Moreover, he saw that the St. Lawrence valley, and not Acadia, was the promising field for France in the New World. In 1608 he made the first permanent French settlement in Canada, at Quebec. The following year he discovered the lake which bears his name.

Champlain and Henry Hudson.

80. Champlain and the Iroquois.—It was a curious coincidence that two years after the settlement of Jamestown Hudson should have sailed up the Hudson River and Champlain should have explored Lake Champlain (1609). These two events had a large influence on American history. The Dutch on the Hudson and the Iroquois in the Mohawk River valley stood in the way of French success in America. The story containing the reasons for French failure is full of interest, and we will now begin to read it.


95°
90°
85°
80°
45°
40°
35°
30°
Lake Superior
Sault Ste. Marie
Lac-qui-parle
Eau Claire
Green Bay
Lake Michigan
Lake Huron
Lake Erie
Lake
Detroit
Prairie du Chien
Marquette, 1673
Illinois
Fort Crevecour
Venango
Fort Du
(Fort Pit
Fort Necessity
Fort Cumberland
Alexa
Missouri
R.
Cahokia
Kaskaskia
Vincennes
Ohio
R.
Ohio
R.
FRENCH
LA
River
La Salle, 1681-1682
Arkansas
R.
Mississippi
Tennessee
River
Alleghany Mountains
ENGLISH
P
Altamaha
R.
Mobile
Pensacola
New Orleans
SPANISH CLAIM
Charlest
St. Augustine



MAP SHOWING ROUTES OF

CHAMPLAIN, MARQUETTE and LA SALLE,

ALSO

ENGLISH POSSESSIONS, FRENCH and SPANISH CLAIMS

AT THE TIME OF THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR.

When Champlain settled at Quebec in 1608, he found that the neighboring tribes of Algonquin Indians were bitter enemies of the Mohawks, one of the Five Nations, or Iroquois, in New York. It was hard for him to keep out of their deadly feud, and he decided to take the side of the Algonquins because their lands were nearer to him. Accordingly he joined them in a battle with the Mohawks near Ticonderoga, on Lake Champlain, and shot some of the latter with his gun. As the Mohawks had never before heard the report of a gun they were overcome with superstitious terror and defeated. The Frenchman enabled the Algonquins to triumph over the Mohawks, but that shot was fatal to the future success of the French in America. The Iroquois were from that day the unrelenting enemies of the French colonists, and did all they could to prevent them from carrying out their plans of exploration and trade.

Champlain makes the Iroquois enemies of the French.

SAMUEL CHAMPLAIN.

81. The French Reach the Mississippi Valley.—It is important to remember that this battle of Ticonderoga took place in 1609, when only a handful of Englishmen were at Jamestown. The French had control of the St. Lawrence, one of the three great water-ways to the interior of North America. If they could get control of the Mississippi valley and the Hudson-Mohawk River route they would hold the other two, and North America would be in their grasp. The distance from the St. Lawrence to the Mississippi was not great. One route lay through Lake Ontario and Lake Erie, by portage into French Creek, through the Alleghany and Ohio Rivers into the Mississippi. Another lay through the same lakes into the Maumee, by portage into the Wabash,

The three great water-ways.

and through the Ohio into the Mississippi. But the ever-watchful Iroquois, whose territory stretched along the shore of Lake Erie, blocked the way and baffled the French here. The latter were obliged to seek a route farther north, which was much longer and more difficult. Slowly and patiently they worked their way up the Ottawa River into Georgian Bay, through Lake Huron, Lake Michigan, across into the Illinois River, and from there into the Mississippi.

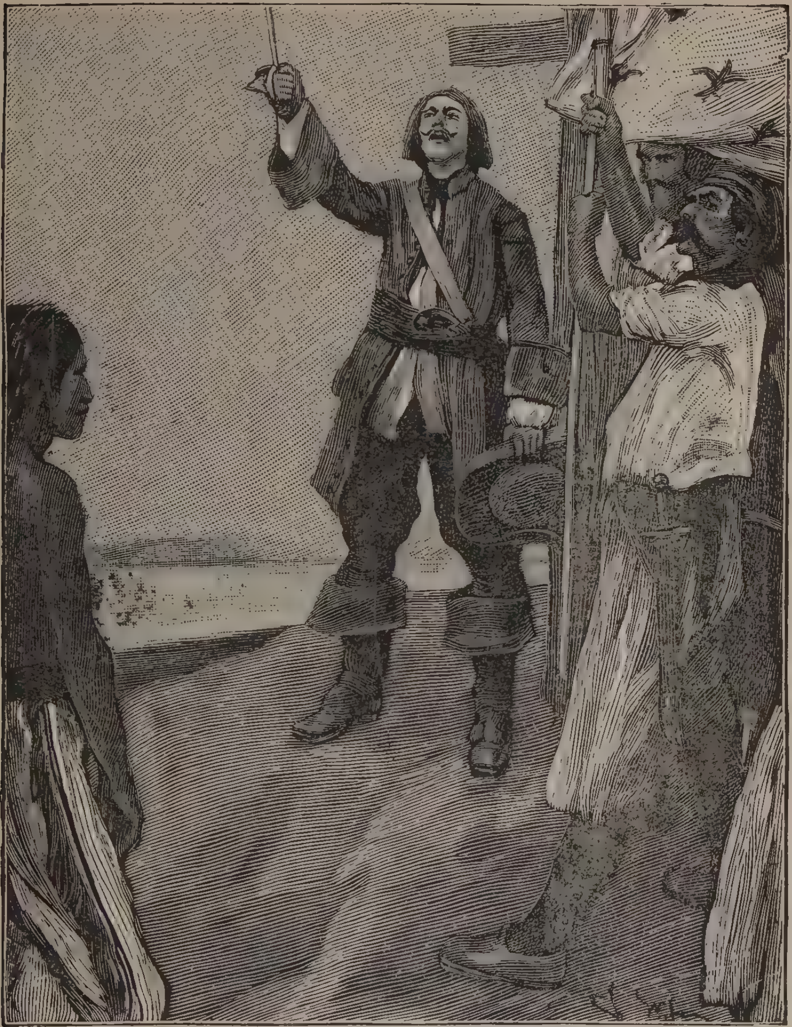
The Iroquois force the French to seek a long and difficult route.

The Jesuit missionaries bore a large part in this toilsome work of exploration. These brave men were eager to Christianize the Indians. They built mission stations and in their zeal braved many dangers. Not only did they gain converts to their faith, but with rare intelligence they made important explorations and discoveries. It was one of their number, Marquette, who succeeded in reaching the Mississippi. Attended by Joliet, he sailed, in 1673, as far down the Mississippi as the mouth of the Arkansas. This was two years before King Philip's War and three years before Bacon's Rebellion.

Important work of the Jesuit missionaries.

82. La Salle Plants the Arms of France at the Mouth of the Mississippi.—But the most valuable explorations were made by the daring and tireless La Salle. He was an earnest Catholic, and was full of plans for his own success and ambitious for the success of France. In 1666, at the age of twenty-three, he came out to Canada, filled with the passion of his age, the desire to discover a water route to India. Not much is known of his early explorations, but it is supposed that he discovered the Ohio River and partially explored it. In 1679 he set out on an expedition to explore the Mississippi. By this time he had given up the idea of a water route to India. His great ambition was to reach the mouth of the Mississippi and secure the valley for France. Having built the *Griffin*, a small boat, on the Niagara River, he sailed in it through Lakes Erie and Huron and landed on the shore of Lake Michigan. He then sent back his boat for

La Salle sets out to explore the Mississippi.



LA SALLE CLAIMING FOR FRANCE ALL THE TERRITORY THROUGH WHICH THE MISSISSIPPI AND ITS TRIBUTARIES FLOWED.

supplies, but he never heard from it again. This was only one of the many trials and disappointments in his troubled life. A little later he reached the Illinois River, and sailing about half way down, built a fort afterward fitly named Crevecœur (Heartbreak). In 1682 he found the Mississippi and explored it to its mouth. There, according to French custom, he planted the French arms and claimed all the country through which the river and its tributaries flowed. He called the country Louisiana in honor of the French King, Louis XIV. This was the year in which Penn was laying the foundations of Philadelphia.

La Salle reaches the mouth of the Mississippi.

ROBERT CAVALIER DE LA SALLE.

83. Attempt to Plant a Colony at the Mouth of the Mississippi.—La Salle's aims were two-fold: (1) To establish military and trade centres at various points and (2) to plant a colony at the mouth of the Mississippi River. In this way he hoped to get control of the fur trade for France. He had built many forts. He now returned to France to get people for his colony. He succeeded in getting men for this new scheme, but in sailing for the mouth of the Mississippi he missed it and landed several hundred miles to the west at Matagorda Bay. Trials and difficulties grew thick about him until, at the end of two years, he started overland to get assistance from Canada. While he and his wretched followers were wandering through the dense forests, he was waylaid and shot dead by some of the men of his own company (1687). He had not accomplished his full purpose, but in exploring the Ohio and the Mississippi and in building forts in the unoccupied territory he had done a great work for his country.

La Salle's two aims.

What La Salle did.

84. On Account of La Salle's Exploration the Mississippi Valley Becomes a Part of New France.—The planting of French arms at the mouth of the Mississippi was a very significant event in American history. It was the declaration to the world that France laid claim to the whole Mississippi valley from the Rocky to the Alleghany Mountains. Spain had failed to follow up her discovery of the Mississippi by making the country known to the world or by colonizing it. It had been the dream of La Salle to unite this immense and valuable territory with the St. Lawrence valley, making a vast empire which would crowd out the English. The English had planted their colonies on the Atlantic sea-coast, and he wished to keep them shut in behind the Alleghanies forever. The Mississippi and St. Lawrence valleys would form the New France of America, with the seat of government removed to the Mississippi.

La Salle's dream.

TO THE PUPIL

1. You have been studying colonial history from the earliest settlements to 1689. Before that date, each colony largely went its own way, with but little interest in any other. After that date, the colonies were gradually drawn nearer together by the necessity of uniting for a better defence against common enemies. One of these common enemies was the French and the Indians, and another the royal and proprietary governors.
2. What was done for France by Verrazano? by Cartier? by Champlain? You cannot too carefully note the results of Champlain's mistake (1609) in making enemies of the Iroquois.
3. Trace carefully on the map the various water-ways by which the French could reach the Mississippi valley. What part did the Jesuit missionaries bear in the toilsome work of exploration?
4. Describe the work of La Salle. What were his aims? Notice what he did in 1682, only seven years before the great landmark 1689. What were the results of his work? Write an essay on his explorations.
5. Learn all you can about the Iroquois Indians, as their influence upon colonial history was remarkable. You will find a good account of them in the first chapter of Parkman's Conspiracy of Pontiac.

CHAPTER X

THE LAST FRENCH WAR

REFERENCES: **Scribner's** Popular History of the United States, III.; **Wright's** Children's Stories in American History; **Sloane's** French War and the Revolution; **Cook's** Stories in the Old Dominion; **Coffin's** Old Times in the Colonies; **Fiske's** War of Independence; **Richardson's** History of Our Country; **Hart's** Formation of the Union.

OUTSIDE READINGS: **Winsor's** Narrative and Critical History, V. and VI.; **Parkman's** Montcalm and Wolfe; **Parkman's** Conspiracy of Pontiac; **Parkman's** Old Régime in Canada; **Bancroft's** United States, V.; **Morris's** Half Hours with American History, I.; **Hinsdale's** Old Northwest; **Wilson's** A History of the American People, II.; **Frothingham's** Rise of the Republic; **Rossiter Johnson's** Old French War; **Scudder's** George Washington; **Franklin's** Autobiography; **Wilson's** George Washington; **Ford's** The True George Washington.

FICTION: **Cooper's** Last of the Mohicans; **Thackeray's** Virginians; **Henty's** With Wolfe in Canada; **Munroe's** At War with Pontiac.

POETRY: **Longfellow's** Evangeline (the Acadians).

Wars between England and France (1689–1763).

85. England and France Struggle for Control in America (1689–1763).—These events in the Mississippi valley occurred just before 1689. In 1688 James II., one of the Stuart kings, was driven out of England and found refuge in the court of France. There France took up his cause, and England and France began a series of wars which did not end until 1763. While these wars were going on in Europe there was fighting between the French and English colonies in America.

The Iroquois and the fur trade.

The Iroquois stood in the way of French success, for the French sought the fur trade, and the Iroquois largely controlled it in the region of the Great Lakes. But since the day that Champlain had joined the Algonquins and helped them defeat the Iroquois, the French had been persistently hindered and harassed by these powerful tribes in the Mohawk valley. It will be remembered that the English, when they conquered New Netherland, inherited from the Dutch the good-will and friendly alliance of these Indians.

The Intercolonial Wars.

Both the French and the English encouraged their Indian allies to make attacks upon frontier settlements during the years that France and England were at war. The various wars in the colonies were called Intercolonial Wars.[1] The last one is the most interesting one to us. It is known as the Last French War[2] in America and the Seven Years' War in Europe (1756–1763).

86. Causes of the Last French War.—Both England and France claimed the territory between the Alleghanies and the Mississippi. England claimed it by the discovery of the Cabots and by Indian treaty, and France by reason of exploration. France had done much more than England to make this region known, but had not occupied the country. When, therefore, the English colonies, which had been taking root on the Atlantic coast, had spread as far west as the eastern base of the Alleghanies, a struggle for possession was inevitable.

Reasons why France and England claimed the Mississippi valley.

By 1750 the French had built a line of sixty forts by

---

[1] The first three of the Intercolonial Wars, named after the English sovereign reigning at the time, were as follows: King William's War (1689–1697), Queen Anne's War (1702–1713), and King George's War (1744–1748). During the last one the New England colonists, led by Colonel Pepperrell, captured Louisburg, a great fortress on Cape Breton Island. The French had thought that this stronghold could withstand any attack, and were therefore amazed at the success of the New England farmers and fishermen. At the end of the war, however, England gave up Louisburg to France.

[2] To develop union among the English colonies, there were needed such common interests as the Intercolonial Wars furnished. Massachusetts, Connecticut, and New York united in King William's War; South Carolina, New England, New York, and New Jersey organized separate expeditions against the French and Indians in Queen Anne's War; the northern colonies engaged in King George's War; and in the Last French War all the colonies stood side by side in a solid array against the French and Indians. This war was national, and led the provincial to begin to think of himself as an American.

FRENCH SOLDIERS AND OFFICERS OF THE TIME OF THE FRENCH WAR.

French forts and colonies.

way of the Great Lakes, from the St. Lawrence to the mouth of the Mississippi. Great skill was shown in locating them at points of military importance. In many cases they afterward became great business and trade centres. Detroit, Chicago, Natchez, and St. Louis mark the sites of some of these forts. The French had planted colonies also at Mobile and New Orleans early in the eighteenth century. Thus far they had outgeneraled the English in establishing a claim to such a vast extent of territory, for the English colonists had been so busy with their own affairs that they had thought very little of the land lying west of the mountains. But at last they had waked up and were ready to make a stubborn fight if necessary.

French and English traders had come into collision in the disputed territory, and both the French and the English appreciated the need of immediate action. About the same time that the French governor was once more trying to make friends with the Iroquois[1] Indians, and urging the home government to send colonists to the Ohio valley, the Ohio Company was formed by some gentlemen in Virginia. This company received from the king, on condition of settlement, a grant of 600,000 acres of land between the Great Kanawha and Monongahela Rivers. Lawrence Washington had a large interest in the Ohio Company, and his younger brother George was employed as surveyor. The Ohio Company at once began to send explorers into the disputed region, and at the same time the French were taking formal possession by sinking lead plates with inscriptions at the mouths of the streams.

---

[1] The Iroquois were the great barrier between the French and the disputed territory. During this war the Iroquois were neutral.

The Ohio Company.

To get ahead of the English the French built a line of forts on the direct route to the Ohio.[1] Governor Dinwiddie sent George Washington, then adjutant-general of the Virginia militia, to inform the French commander[2] that he was building on English territory and would do well to depart peaceably. Washington at this time was twenty-one years old and over six feet tall. Cool-headed and fearless, with seven companions, all on pack-horses, he started from Williamsburg, Va., on his perilous journey late in October, 1753. About the middle of January, 1754, he returned with the refusal of the French commander to withdraw.

Washington's journey to the French forts.

As the juncture of the Alleghany and Monongahela Rivers was the "Gateway of the West," a fort here would control the entrance to the Ohio valley. Both nations had their eyes upon this important site. The English reached it first, but were driven off by a larger force of French, who put up a fort and called it Fort Du Quesne. Washington, who was on his way from Virginia to occupy the new fort, was met by the unsuccessful party of English. He pushed on to Great Meadows (Pennsylvania), and there learned that the French were marching toward him. Advancing with the aid of an Indian guide and forty men, he met a French party in a dark glen near by, and exchanged shots with them. The French leader and most of his men were killed. This encounter began the war. Washington returned to Great Meadows and threw up intrenchments which he called Fort Necessity. Here he was defeated by the French and obliged to retire (July, 1754). This handful of men with their youthful leader had fired the shot which set in motion European armies. The war which followed was but little less important in its issues than the Revolution. Let us now follow it in some of its most important engagements.

---

[1] These forts included Presque Isle, Le Bœuf, and Venango on the Alleghany.

[2] To reach Fort Le Bœuf, situated only fifteen miles from Lake Erie, Washington had to travel five hundred miles through the wilderness. By the time he was ready to start back from Fort Venango, it was Christmas. The pack-horses were so weak that Washington and a single companion pressed forward on foot. They had many narrow escapes from death. A treacherous Indian guide, who was not three rods in advance, turned suddenly and shot at Washington, but missed him. Washington took the Indian's gun away and let him go. On reaching the Alleghany River Washington and his companion found it full of floating ice. With nothing but a hatchet, they made a raft and began crossing the river. Shortly afterward Washington was struck by a piece of floating ice and knocked into the water. Darkness falling upon them before they could reach the opposite side of the river, they spent the night on an island, where they nearly froze to death.

The fighting begins at Great Meadows.

QUEBEC IN 1730.

87. Plan of the War.—The plan of the English in 1755 and their general plan for the war was four-fold. An expedition was to be sent against Acadia; a second against Crown Point, a French fort on Lake Champlain, which controlled the route to Canada from the south; a third was to move through the Mohawk valley and capture Fort Niagara, the key to the Great Lakes; and a fourth, the most important, under the leadership of General Braddock, had for its object the capture of Fort Du Quesne, the "Gateway of the West."

88. Braddock's Defeat (1755.)—In 1755 General Braddock was sent over to take command of the English forces in America. He was a brave soldier with much experience, but he knew nothing of fighting the Indians in woodland warfare. Self-confident and headstrong, he was quite unwilling to take advice from Washington or Franklin,[1] who both warned him against Indian ambuscades. He trusted all things to his English regulars. The colonial troops were to his mind very inferior, the colonial officers inexperienced, and he regarded them with contempt. With 2,000 men Braddock started from Alexandria, Virginia, toward Fort Du Quesne.[2] His purpose was to capture this fort and then to march north along the Alleghany River, capture the line of forts upon its banks, and join the other forces at Niagara. In marching his troops he insisted upon the same order and precision as in the open fields of Europe, and would listen to no suggestions of avoiding risks from ambush. Finally, when within eight miles of the fort, the fears of the despised American militia were realized. Braddock's army marched into an ambush. The attack came from an unseen foe, who shot down by scores the surprised English soldiers. The regulars tried to fight in ranks, but in doing so were the more easily struck down

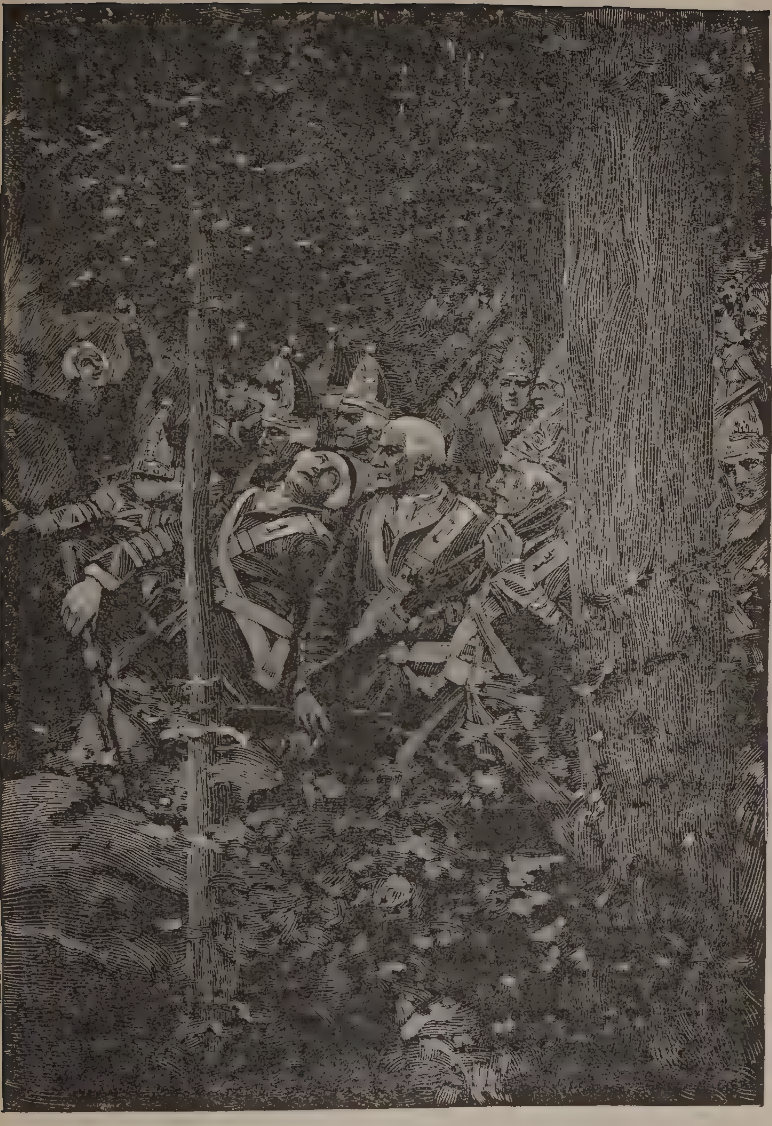
General Braddock.

The ambush and the battle.

---

[1] Benjamin Franklin was at this time forty-nine years old. He had been for many years a member of the Pennsylvania Assembly and was now Postmaster-general for America.

[2] Braddock was in great need of horses and wagons, which for a long time he was not able to secure. At Frederick, Maryland, he was met by Benjamin Franklin, who used his powerful influence to procure from Pennsylvania farmers one hundred and fifty wagons, six hundred draft-horses, and fifteen hundred pack-horses. Franklin promised to see that the farmers were paid for their horses and wagons, and he kept his word.



GENERAL BRADDOCK'S TROOPS IN AN INDIAN AMBUSCADE.

by the Indians firing from behind trees. Braddock made a brave effort to bear up against the foe. Four horses were killed under him, and he was on the fifth when he received a mortal wound. Washington, one of Braddock's staff, had three horses shot under him, and four bullets passed through his clothes.

Dismal failure of Braddock's expedition.

Finally, after suffering severely, the regulars fled in shameful rout. The brave Virginians, led by Washington, fought behind trees in true Indian fashion, and saved the army from utter ruin. Out of Braddock's army of 2,000, 700 men and three-fourths of the officers were killed. Such was the dismal failure of Braddock's expedition. The miserable remnant of his army retreated, and the Indians laid waste the settlements in western Virginia, Maryland, and Pennsylvania.

The Acadians take sides with the French.

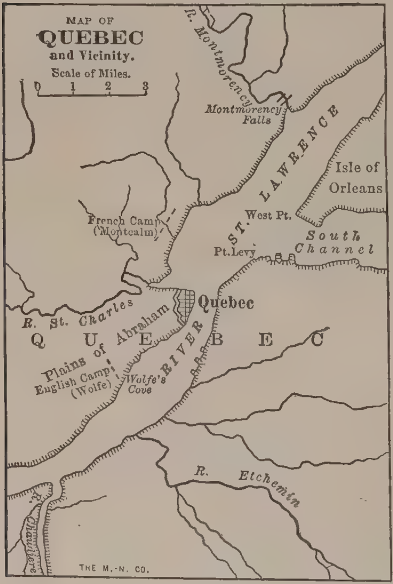
89. Removal of the Acadians (1755).—During the same summer that Braddock was defeated the people of Acadia were removed from their homes. Acadia was included in what is now Nova Scotia and New Brunswick. It was settled by the French early in the seventeenth century, and about one hundred years later (1710) was captured by the English. For forty-five years it had been under English rule. But the simple-minded, ignorant peasantry continued to speak the French language and to take sides with the French in every struggle with the English. In this way they did much injury to the English cause. Accordingly, in 1755, some troops from New England landed in Acadia and told the inhabitants they must promise to support the English king or they would be sent out of the country. More than 5,000 of them refused, and they were torn from their homes and scattered among the colonies from Massachusetts to Georgia. A large number of them found their way to Louisiana, where many of their descendants may be found to-day. This removal caused much hardship, but it seemed to be a military necessity.

Their removal necessary.

90. Montcalm and French Successes.—There had been fighting in the colonies for about two years before war was

Weak English generals.

declared between England and France in 1756. The first two years of fighting in the colonies found the French successful almost everywhere. The English government sent to America very weak and inefficient generals. These men, like Braddock, were unwilling to take any advice from colonial officers and looked down upon colonial troops. Moreover, they so managed the various armies that there was not united and harmonious action. The French, on the contrary, were ably handled by Montcalm, who so massed his forces at important points that, during these two years, he kept the English out of the disputed territory, and hemmed them in behind the Alleghanies. At the close of 1757 the outlook for England was gloomy.



91. William Pitt and English Successes.—At this critical time William Pitt became the head of affairs in England. Clear-headed and great-hearted, he was a true hero. He loved England as fondly as his own life and was willing to rise or fall with her. He said, "I can save England," and he did save England. His faith in himself and his country filled the people with hope and confidence. He appointed strong and able officers for the troops in America. He put the colonial officers and troops on an equal footing with the English and pushed forward the various armies in energetic, united action. The spirit of Pitt was everywhere. In quick succession Louisburg, Fort Frontenac, Fort Du Quesne, Fort Niagara, and other French strongholds fell into the hands of the English.

General Wolfe.

92. Wolfe and the Capture of Quebec (September 18, 1759).—Pitt showed great wisdom in appointing General Wolfe to take command of an expedition against Quebec, the most important place now remaining in possession of the French.[1] General Wolfe, then in his thirty-third year, had a feeble body but a fearless soul. As brigadier-general at Louisburg he had gained high praise for energy and boldness. Pitt believed in this brave young general, and therefore placed him at the head of an army of 10,000 men for the capture of Quebec. The men so idolized Wolfe that they would gladly follow him to victory or death.

MAJ.-GEN. JAMES WOLFE.

Quebec.

Quebec was situated on steep and lofty cliffs overlooking the St. Lawrence, and was protected by a strong fortress. This fortress was the strongest in America, and the key to Canada. Wolfe and his army tried in vain for three months to find a weak spot where they might make a successful attack, but failure met them on every hand. The English troops were discouraged, and even the brave Wolfe began to lose hope, but in spite of sickness and intense bodily suffering he resolved to make one more attempt to take Quebec.

The English climb the rocky heights.

At last his searching eyes caught sight of a pathway up the rugged sides of the cliffs along the river bank, some distance above the city. Here was an opportunity not to be neglected. One dark night Wolfe's army floated quietly down the river in boats and landed at the foot of the rocky heights. The brave soldiers, with immense difficulty, pulled themselves and their cannon up the steep ascent. Reaching the top, they quickly overpowered the guard, which was too much astonished to make resistance. In the morning, Wolfe's men were drawn up in line of battle on the Plains of Abraham, less than a mile from the walls of Quebec. Montcalm, astonished at what the English had done, would not wait for an attack, but at once led his army out on the open plain. The fighting was terrible, and the French could not stand up against the withering fire of the English. Wolfe led in a furious charge and, although twice pierced with bullets, refused to give up until he received a mortal wound. It was hard for him to die as long as the issue was in doubt, but when, in his last moments, he heard the shout of victory, he said, "Now, God be praised, I will die in peace." Montcalm was also mortally wounded, and in the hour of death was equally heroic. When told that he could not live more than ten or twelve hours, he exclaimed, "Thank God, I shall not live to see Quebec surrendered." A few days later Quebec passed from French into English hands (September 18, 1759).

---

[1] Crown Point and Ticonderoga were captured by the English under Amherst in the summer of 1759 (the last of July).

MARQUIS DE MONTCALM.

Wolfe's victory and death.

93. **The Treaty of Peace** (1763).—With the fall of Quebec the last stronghold of the French in America passed into the hands of the English. The following year Montreal surrendered, and the colony of New France ceased to exist. Although the war was over in America, it still continued for three years in Europe, and Spain joined France against England. It was finally closed by the treaty of Paris, signed in 1763. By this treaty France ceded to Spain all the territory lying between the Mississippi and the Rocky Mountains; also the town of New Orleans, which controlled the navigation of the Mississippi. To England she gave Canada and all her territory east of the Mississippi.[1] Spain gave Florida to England in ex-

---

[1] France retained for fishing stations two small islands, St. Pierre and Miquelon, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

change for Havana, which the English had captured during the war. The English had driven out of North America successively the Dutch (1664) and the French (1763). England and Spain alone remained. Thenceforward these two had control in North America.

94. Other Results of the War.—But there were other far-reaching results of the Last French War which largely affected the future of the English colonies: (1) Up to this time there had been little of common interest among them. But all were engaged in this struggle, and they fought side by side. Thus the war taught them to know and respect each other, gave them a mutual interest, and prepared them for union. (2) They were made to realize their own strength and to see that their military ability was quite equal to that of the English soldiers. (3) The war was a preparatory school for the Revolution. Such officers as Marion, Stark, Putnam, and Washington received a military training of great value. (4) Although in fighting the French in America, England felt that she had been protecting the colonies, the colonies felt that they had been helping England in establishing English against French authority. This attitude explains their growing sense of power and independence which led, after the removal of the French, to their resistance against British interference and their final separation from the British crown.

NOTE

The Conspiracy of Pontiac.—When, at the close of the Last French War, England tried to take possession of the territory west of the Alleghanies and north of the Ohio, trouble with the Indians in that region at once arose. The French, embittered by their loss of this territory, stirred up the Indians against the English, and the conspiracy of Pontiac was the outcome. This able and daring chief of the Ottawas organized a widespread movement for the purpose of destroying all the English settlers west of the Alleghanies. Having won over to his scheme many tribes, he succeeded in capturing eight out of twelve forts, whose garrisons he put to death. This fierce and bloody war lasted two years and ended in the complete failure of Pontiac.

TO THE PUPIL

1. What was the leading cause of the Last French War? What did the Ohio Company set out to do? What journey did Washington make and with what results? Write an account of this journey.
2. How did the war begin? In outlining the plan of the war use the map freely.
3. What do you think of Braddock and of the causes of his defeat? Was the removal of the Acadians just? Give reasons for your answer.
4. Account for French successes in the early years of the war. What had William Pitt to do with English successes later?
5. What do you admire in the character of General Wolfe? For many interesting facts about the personality of this heroic man, see Parkman's Montcalm and Wolfe.
6. Imagine yourself to have been one of Wolfe's soldiers and write an account in the first person of scaling the Heights of Abraham and of the battle on the following day.
7. What were the results of the war? Make two brief outlines, one containing the advantages the French had in America and the other containing the advantages the English had.
8. Subject for debate: Resolved, that the French had a just claim to the Ohio valley.
9. Subject for essay: Cooper's Last of the Mohicans.
10. To aid you in an intelligent review from the beginning of the book, you can supplement the chronological chart suggested at the end of Chapter VI. by adding a fourth parallel line for the principal events connected with French exploration and colonization. Such a review will help you to understand clearly the nature of the struggle, mainly on the part of four European countries, to get control of North America. By 1763 England had come out ahead in this struggle.
11. As you may know, Francis Parkman is the standard historian on the relations between the English and the French colonies in America. Read his Montcalm and Wolfe and Longfellow's Evangeline.

CHAPTER XI

LIFE IN THE COLONIES AT THE CLOSE OF THE FRENCH AND INDIAN WARS

REFERENCES: **Drake's** Making of New England; **Richardson's** History of Our Country; **Barnes's** Popular History of the United States; **Sanford's** History of Connecticut; **Thwaites's** Colonies; **Scudder's** Men and Manners in America One Hundred Years Ago; **Eggleston's** Household History.

OUTSIDE READINGS: **Earle's** Customs and Fashions in Old New England; **Earle's** Sabbath in Puritan New England; **Earle's** Costume of Colonial Times; **Weeden's** Economic and Social History of New England; **Earle's** Margaret Winthrop; **Irving's** Knickerbocker's History of New York; **Irving's** Sketch Book; **Hart's** Colonial Children.

95. The Colonies in General.—At the close of the French and Indian Wars in 1763, the colonies mainly occupied a strip of land lying along the Atlantic coast and stretching all the way from Maine to Florida. There were thirteen of these original colonies, which, by reason of difference in soil, climate, and other natural as well as social and economic conditions, may be divided into three groups: the New England group, or New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut; the Middle group, or New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Delaware; and the Southern group, or Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia. The population was about two million souls,[1] one-fourth of whom were slaves. The people lived mainly along the seacoast and large rivers, although a few settlements stretched back into the forests. As many of the people were engaged in farming there were few large towns. Philadelphia, with a population of about

The three groups of colonies.

Population and large towns.

---

[1] The population of New York City in 1900 was 3,437,202.

25,000, was the largest town; Boston was not far behind; and New York contained 10,000 or 12,000 people.

Money being scarce, trade was mainly by barter. There were much comfort and prosperity and some wealth, but there was great need of labor to develop the resources of the West, which was now under the control of the English and open to settlement.

THE NEW ENGLAND GROUP OF COLONIES

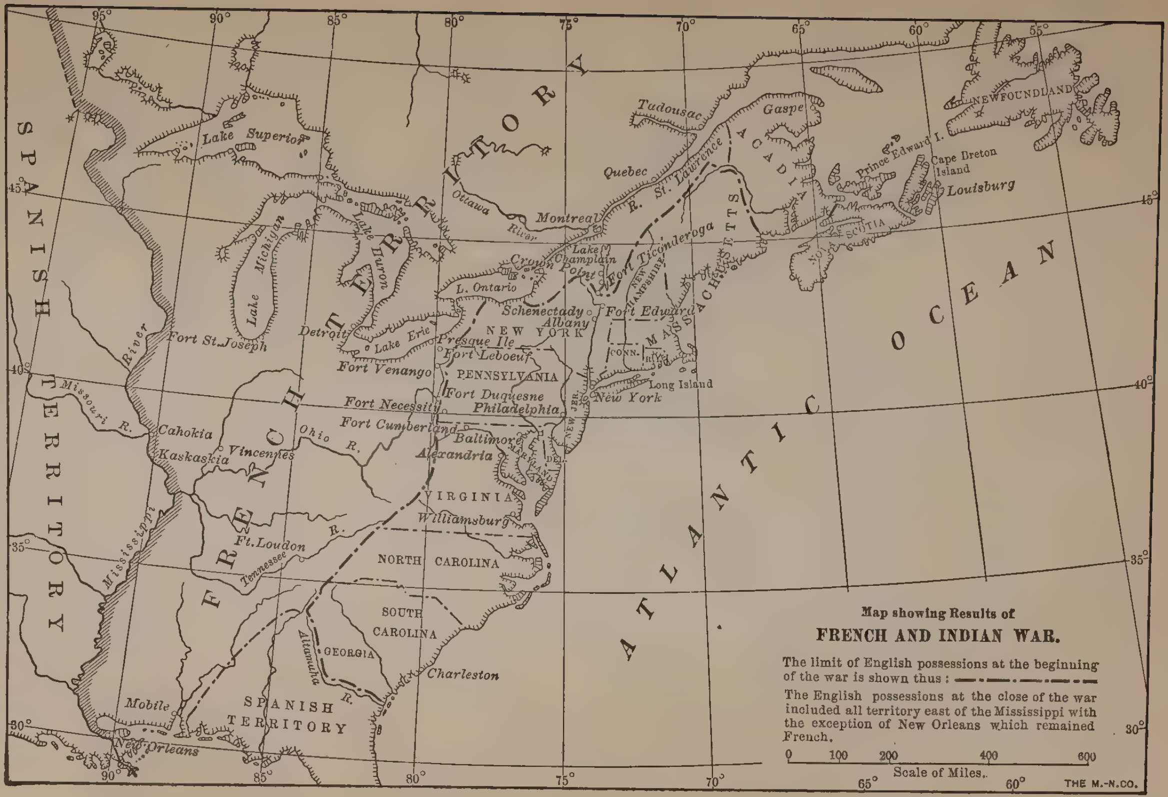
96. Occupations of the People.—By reason of the poor, rocky soil of New England, agriculture yielded a meagre return for a great deal of hard labor. Farming on a small scale was extensive, but much more important sources of wealth were the cod and whale fisheries. By 1763 New England had built up a flourishing trade with the West India Islands. Cargoes of dried fish from New England were exchanged in these islands for sugar, molasses, and slaves. Large forests furnished excellent material for shipbuilding. Boston alone had six hundred vessels engaged in foreign commerce and a thousand in the fisheries and trade along the coast. All this fishing and trading developed a hardy and expert class of sailors that later furnished excellent material for our navy.

The fisheries and the trade with the West India Islands.

97. Religion and Church Worship.—Religion came first with the Puritan. The minister was usually the leading man in the community, and he did much to form public opinion in political as well as religious matters.

The churches were plain within and without. They were not heated, even in the coldest weather. But for all this, everybody was expected to attend, absence without good excuse being punishable by a fine. The minister sometimes preached in overcoat and mittens. Women carried heated stones in their muffs, and later handstoves took the place of the stones. When going to church the men sometimes carried their muskets and left sentinels outside to watch against sudden attack from the Indians. People were carefully seated according to their

Church attendance.



Map showing Results of

FRENCH AND INDIAN WAR.

The limit of English possessions at the beginning of the war is shown thus : —·—·—·—

The English possessions at the close of the war included all territory east of the Mississippi with the exception of New Orleans which remained French.

0 100 200 400 600

Scale of Miles.

social position, the men sitting on one side of the church and the women on the other. As the minister often preached two or three hours, the congregation at times naturally grew tired and sleepy. But the tithing man was always present with his long rod of authority. This rod had a piece of brass on one end and a hare's foot on the other. If a woman went to sleep she was gently touched with the hare's foot, but if an unfortunate boy nodded or otherwise failed in reverent attention, he was less gently rapped on the head with the hard end of the rod.

The tithing man.

PURITANS GOING TO CHURCH.

98. The Salem Witchcraft (1692).—It has often been said that the gloomy religious life of the Puritans led to that strange delusion known as the Salem Witchcraft. As a matter of fact, the belief in witchcraft in 1692 was not confined to the Puritans, for such a belief was almost universal. The witchcraft craze in Massachusetts started from Salem Village (now Danvers) a short distance from Salem. A half dozen girls and young women, from ten to twenty years old, became almost insane over the subject of witchcraft. They mewed like cats, barked like dogs, and went into fits, declaring that certain persons, in league with the devil, bit them, pinched them, or in some way tortured them. On the testimony of these silly girls hundreds of innocent people were thrown into prison on the charge of witchcraft. Before the frenzy had spent itself, nineteen people were hanged, including a clergyman, and one old man eighty years of age was pressed to death with heavy weights. But when, after six months, some of the magistrates and even the governor's wife were accused, the people realized their folly and stopped punishing for witchcraft.

99. Education.—Education stood next to religion and, from the Puritan standpoint, was almost a part of religion. The Puritans therefore established a system of public education soon after reaching New England. Every town was required to have a school, and before 1650 each New England colony, except Rhode Island, had passed laws enforcing some degree of education. Everywhere there was training in reading and writing. As a consequence, public education was so general that there were few people who could not read and write. As early as 1636 Harvard College was established at Cambridge, Mass., and in 1701 Yale College at New Haven, Conn.

100. Crimes and Punishments.—Laws were severe, and few crimes were committed. Many offences were punishable by death, and all kinds of punishments were inflicted in the most public way. Stocks, pillories, ducking-stools, and whipping-posts could usually be found in every village of any size. The pillory was a wooden frame, so constructed as to hold fast the head and hands of the offender. The stocks held fast the offender's feet only. In some cases he was confined in a cage and exposed to the public gaze; in others, he was branded with the initial letter of his crimes or compelled to wear, in a conspicuous place, a big initial letter indicating his crime.

The stocks and the pillory.

101. Life and Manners.—The New England diet was simple. Cider and rum were favorite drinks, used often as we use tea and coffee now.

The best room and the kitchen were the principal rooms in the house. The most noticeable thing in the kitchen was the fireplace. It would accommodate a backlog five or six feet long and two or three feet in diameter and was large enough for roasting an en-

The old-time fireplace.

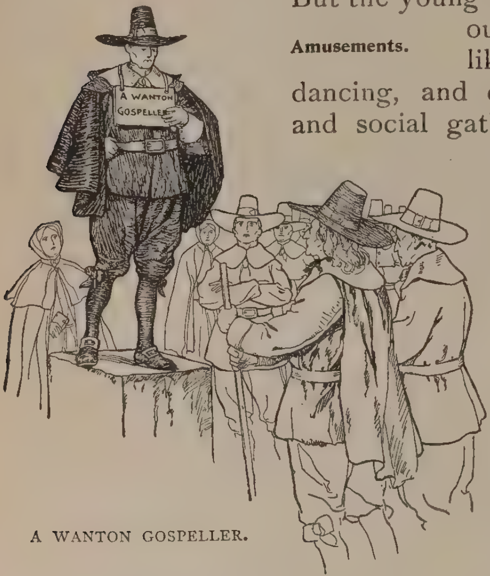
tire sheep. As there were no stoves all cooking was done here. By such firesides the mothers and daughters would sit during the long winter evenings with their knitting, spinning, or quilting, while the father read his Bible or smoked his pipe. Sometimes as the fire blazed, cider-drinking, nut-cracking, and story-telling helped to while away the evening hours.

Amusements.

The Thanksgiving reunion.

Weddings and funerals.

In general, however, life was neither bright nor cheerful, as the Puritans were shy of most kinds of enjoyment. But the young people were not without simple amusements, like house-raisings, dancing, and corn-husking parties, and social gatherings for spinning, quilting, and apple-paring. On these occasions there was much genuine fun. Christmas was not observed because the Puritans did not like the Church of England, which made much of the observance of Christmas. Their chief holiday was Thanksgiving Day, which they celebrated, as now, in the autumn. This was made the occasion for family reunions. At the Thanksgiving dinner the table was loaded with chicken, turkey, nuts, plum-puddings, mince-pies, pumpkin-pies, and many other toothsome varieties of food. Weddings were festive occasions. The friends and neighbors were generally entertained at the bride's home, the wedding feast often lasting several days. Funerals were very expensive. Gifts such as scarfs, gloves, and rings were generously distributed to



A WANTON GOSPELLER.

the guests, and an elaborate feast of meats and drinks was regarded as an essential feature of the occasion.

TO THE PUPIL

1. Prepare yourself to write five minutes on any one of the following topics: Occupations of the people, church worship, education, crimes and punishments, the old-time fireplace, and amusements.
2. Imagine yourself to be a New England boy or girl in colonial days and write a story of your experiences. Such work will greatly aid you in reviving the past.
3. What do you like in the manners and customs of Early New England? Read Earle's Customs and Fashions in Old New England.

THE SOUTHERN GROUP OF COLONIES

102. Occupations of the People.—In the Southern colonies, a rich soil was general, rivers made excellent highways, and the climate was well suited to agriculture. The plantations were scattered along the rivers, sometimes many miles apart, with thickly wooded stretches of land between. Each planter in Virginia had his own wharf, from which his produce was carried to England, and to which manufactured goods of every sort were brought in exchange. The planter needed but little that he did not obtain on his plantation or at his wharf. His slaves were not only cultivators of the soil, but they included skilled workmen, such as millers, tailors, carpenters, and shoemakers. Under such an independent system of life, towns were not needed, and before the Revolution there were only a few towns of any size in Virginia.

The plantation and the planter.

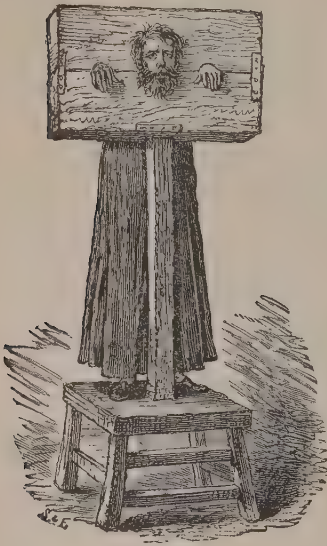
103. Education.—The facilities for common school education were poor. Governor Berkeley said (1670), "I thank God there are no free schools, nor printing, and I hope we shall not have them these hundred years." The scattered condition of the population did not favor the establishment of good common schools. The rich planters had tutors at home for their children and often sent their sons to Europe to be educated, but the schools for the masses were so few that the poorer people

Berkeley opposes free schools.

generally grew up in ignorance. The wealthy planters could live without work and formed a leisure class. Many of them owned fine libraries.

The cavaliers and political leaders in Virginia.

Although Virginia had been settled as early as 1607, the most important additions were made to her population in the time of the Commonwealth (1649–1660.) During this time hundreds of the king's followers, or cavaliers, came to Virginia. These men were usually from the higher ranks of English society, and had been prominent in public life in England. Their descendants in Virginia naturally inherited their political tendencies and included the ancestors of George Washington, Thomas Jefferson, James Madison, James Monroe, Patrick Henry, the Lees, and the Randolphs. We need not be surprised, then, that Virginia furnished more leaders in the Revolution than any other colony and afterward became the "Mother of Presidents."

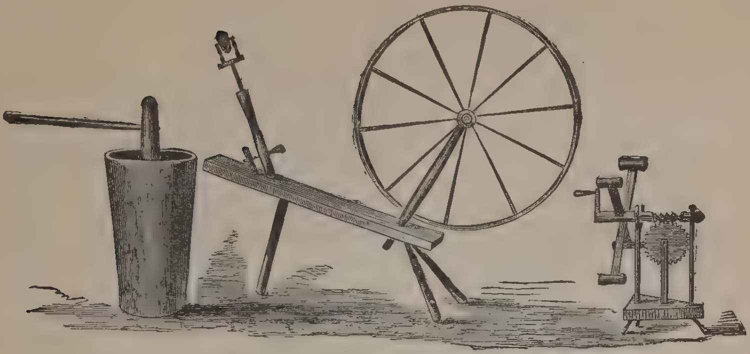


THE PILLORY.

The mansion and the slave quarters.

Manner of life of the planters.

104. Life and Manners.—The mansion of the planter, built of wood or brick, was two stories high, with a spacious veranda and a wide hallway. Close by the mansion were the slave quarters, consisting of wooden cabins surrounded by gardens and poultry yards. These negro quarters, on a large plantation, made a small village, and all about them could be seen swarms of negro children. Planters on the large plantations lived in wasteful extravagance, with choice dogs, fine horses, and a coach-and-six for great occasions. They were fond of such sports as horse-racing and fox-hunting, and were so generous and hospi-



COLONIAL RELICS.

table that the doors of their mansions were always open to respectable travellers. Though, as we have seen, Thanksgiving was the feast-day of the year in New England, Christmas was celebrated in a festive manner in the South, when everything was gay and bright in the planter's house. A great dinner was followed in the evening by dancing to the music of the harpsichord and the violin.

Christmas a festive occasion.

TO THE PUPIL

1. **Find points of difference between the people in New England and in the South in respect to occupations, education, and life and manners.**
2. **Write an essay on life in Virginia just before the Revolution. Read Scudder's George Washington.**

THE MIDDLE GROUP OF COLONIES

105. The People and Their Occupation.—The people in the New England and Southern groups of colonies were largely English, but this was by no means true of New York, Pennsylvania, and the other Middle colonies. Here the population represented many of the countries of Europe. Trade and agriculture were of about equal importance in New York. The fur trade claimed most attention in New York and

A mixed population in New York and Pennsylvania.

EARLY NEW AMSTERDAM, SHOWING

Pennsylvania. Besides furs, the principal exports were grain and flour. The principal port for foreign trade was then, as now, New York, whose merchants were busy and prosperous, employing many ships in their extensive commerce with England, the West Indies, and other parts of the world. Most manufactured goods came from England and the continent of Europe. As in New England, the spinning-wheel and loom took their place in the domestic economy. The ship-building industry and the saw-mill were of necessity early developed, and the Dutch wind-mill became a striking feature of the landscape. Outside of New York agriculture was the most extensive industry.

Trade, agriculture, and manufacturing.

106. Education.—While the Dutch were in control, common schools were well supported in New York, but under the English they were not in a flourishing condition. The Episcopalians founded King's College, now Columbia University, New York, in 1754. Although in New Jersey and Pennsylvania but little was done to provide for general education, outside of a few larger towns, the Presbyte-

COSTUMES, AMUSEMENTS, AND ARCHITECTURE.

rians founded Princeton College, New Jersey, in 1746; and Benjamin Franklin founded the University of Pennsylvania at Philadelphia in 1749.

107. Crimes and Punishments.—Crime was not widely prevalent in the Middle colonies, although piracy had a most demoralizing influence. Hanging, whipping, and the pillory were forms of punishment frequently practised under the public gaze, as was the case in New England.

108. Life and Manners Among the Dutch.—The Dutch house had a pointed gable roof with a weather-vane on top and a porch in front of the house, where the family sat during summer evenings to enjoy the air. There were great wide fireplaces with seats for reading or sewing. The walls were without paper, but many pictures in small frames hung upon them. The Dutch women were noted for their neatness and for their excellent housekeeping. They scrubbed the floors and sprinkled them with sand every day. The men were slow and easy-going, but they were honest, thrifty, and industrious. They were fond of smok-

The Dutch house.

Neat housekeeping.

Funeral customs.

ing and liked story-telling and good eating, the Dutch housekeepers being noted for their skill in making doughnuts, crullers, and various kinds of cakes. The Dutch introduced "Santa Claus" and "St. Nicholas" at Christmas time, and New Year's visiting. Among them a funeral was a most expensive affair. Not only did they distribute to the guests gloves, scarfs, and rings, as was the custom in New England, but to each friend a bottle of wine. In Albany the funeral expenses in one instance were $20,000.

Life among the patroons.

The towns were situated mostly about the mouth of the Hudson, and from there the settlements extended through the Hudson valley to Albany and then followed the Mohawk valley. The patroons lived on their vast estates in grand and richly furnished houses facing the Hudson. They had about them many servants and rented to numerous tenants the farms into which their estates were divided. These great estates, lying on the rivers, where goods could be easily landed and cargoes sent off, did away with the necessity of trade centres or towns.

Social life of the people.

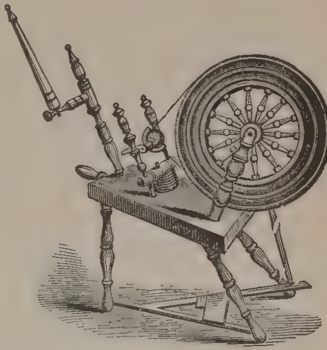
The people were more social and fond of merry-making than the New Englanders. Their most noted holidays were Christmas, New Year's, St. Valentine's Day, Easter, and May Day. In the country, spinning-bees, house-raisings, corn-huskings, and dancing parties were favorite amusements; in towns, horse-racing, cock-fighting, balls, and picnics. There was little luxury, but much quiet contentment with the simple ways of living.

TO THE PUPIL

1. What points of difference do you find between the people of the Middle colonies and those of New England? Those of the South?
2. Write a short account of life and manners among the Dutch, adding as many facts as you can to those given in the text.
3. The Legend of Sleepy Hollow, in Irving's Sketch Book, is delightful reading.

MODES OF TRAVEL AND COMMUNICATION

109. Modes of Travel.—It was difficult for the colonies to know and understand each other because their means of communication were so restricted. The usual mode of travel on land was on foot or horseback; and not only were the roads poor, but very few of the rivers had bridges. People living near the rivers journeyed much by row-boats, and those along the coast made great use of sloops. The trip by water from New York to Philadelphia, with a fair wind, required three days.


OLD SPINNING-WHEEL.

The old stage-coach.

A wagon ran twice a week from New York to Philadelphia, and, in 1766, a stage-coach was put on which made the trip in two days. This stage, greatly shortening the time, was called a "flying machine." It could make the journey from Boston to New York in four days. When the coach was ready the driver gave notice by sounding a horn, and then, with a crack of the whip, away it went on its slow and toilsome journey, during which it was no uncommon thing for the travellers to be compelled to alight and help pry the coach-wheels out of the mire.

Newspapers.

Mails were carried mostly on horseback, and people depended mainly on letters for news. Newspapers did not at this time tell much about local or colonial news. They were full of advertisements and news from Europe. The first newspaper was the *Boston News Letter* (1704). At the close of the Last French War there were from thirty to forty newspapers in the whole country.

CHAPTER XII

GROWTH TOWARD UNION IN THE COLONIES

REFERENCES: **Scribner's** Popular History of the United States; **Fisher's** Civil Government in the United States; **Thwaites's** Colonies; **Fiske's** Colonial Era; **Bancroft's** United States, II.

OUTSIDE READINGS: **Frothingham's** Rise of the Republic; **Eggleston's** Household History; **Macy's** Our Government; **Franklin's** Plan of Union (Old South Leaflets); **Fiske's** Civil Government in the United States; **Woodburn's** The American Republic.

110. Colonial Government.—The various colonial governments were modelled after the English and were therefore much alike in form. Each colony had its governor and a law-making body consisting of the Council,[1] and the Assembly. The Council was the governor's body of advisers. They aided the governor in executing his duties, and generally took part in making laws. The Assembly was elected by the people and was therefore the stronghold of their rights. It alone could levy taxes, and in this way it controlled the public money.

The governor, the council, and the assembly.

But the manner of choosing the governor made all the difference in the amount of freedom which each colony enjoyed. In 1763 there were three political groups[2] of colonies. The first, containing Rhode Island and Connecticut, may rightly be called the *republican*, or self-governing, group, because the people elected the governor; the second, containing Pennsylvania,

The three kinds of colonies.

---

[1] The members of the council were chosen in various ways: by the king, as in Virginia; by the proprietary governor, as in Pennsylvania; by the legislature, as in Massachusetts; or by the people, as in Connecticut.

[2] These political groups should not be confused with the groups named in par. 94.

Delaware, and Maryland, may be called the *proprietary* group, because the proprietors appointed the governor; and the third, containing the remaining eight colonies, may be called the *royal* group, because the king of England appointed the governor.

111. Republican, Proprietary, and Royal Colonies.— Connecticut and Rhode Island had very liberal charters and governed themselves without any interference from the mother-country. They were, even at this early period, little republics. In the royal and proprietary colonies there was an almost continual struggle going on between the governors and the colonial assemblies. The points at issue were sometimes petty, sometimes serious, and the discussions were often bitter. In New York, for instance, the burning question was whether the governor should receive a fixed salary (1745–1755). The members of the assembly objected, for they feared that the governor might thus become independent of the people. They believed a fixed salary would be in the nature of a tax by the crown, and, true to the instincts of their forefathers, they declared that no taxes should be levied without the consent of the people. In all the proprietary and royal colonies, long and bitter conflicts were waged over raising money for public defence, especially during the Intercolonial Wars (1689–1763). As the real source of power in any government is the authority that lays the taxes, the assemblies usually came out ahead.

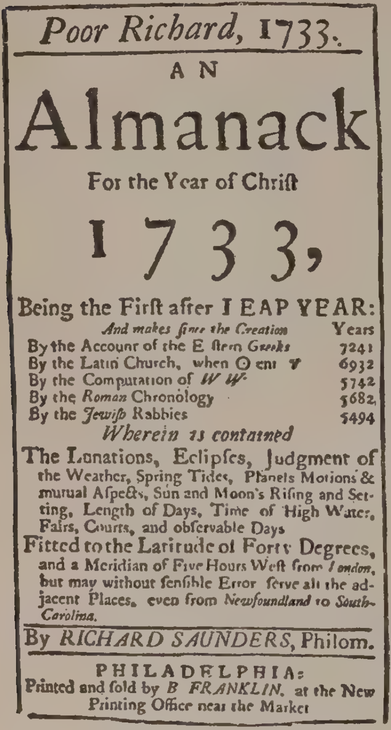
Struggle between the royal and proprietary governors and the assemblies.

No taxation without representation.

The results were twofold: (1) The people received valuable political training, and (2) they learned that they had a common interest in contending against the personal rule of the king of England. The attempt to enforce personal rule, or royal prerogative, as it was called, is most familiar in the case of Berkeley in Virginia and Andros in Massachusetts, who did much to arouse the spirit of opposition in the two leading colonies. These colonies were afterward the first to break out in open rebellion against English authority.

Two results of the struggle.

112. Need of Union Among the Colonies.—The great need of the thirteen colonies was union. We have seen how the feeling of common danger from Indian Wars, and later from the various wars with the French, drew the colonists together. The common grievances of the assemblies against their royal and proprietary governors united the people still more closely, when the latter realized that their liberties were endangered by the British crown.



Poor Richard, 1733.

A N

Almanack

For the Year of Chriſt

1 7 3 3,

Being the Firſt after LEAP YEAR:

And makes ſince the Creation	Years
By the Account of the Eaſtern *Greeks*	7241
By the Latin Church, when ☉ ent. ♈	6932
By the Computation of *W. W.*	5742
By the *Roman* Chronology	5682
By the *Jewiſh* Rabbies	5494

Wherein is contained

The Lunations, Eclipſes, Judgment of the Weather, Spring Tides, Planets Motions & mutual Aſpects, Sun and Moon's Riſing and Setting, Length of Days, Time of High Water, Fairs, Courts, and obſervable Days

Fitted to the Latitude of Forty Degrees, and a Meridian of Five Hours Weſt from *London*, but may without ſenſible Error ſerve all the adjacent Places, even from *Newfoundland* to *South-Carolina.*

By *RICHARD SAUNDERS*, Philom.

PHILADELPHIA:
Printed and ſold by *B. FRANKLIN*, at the New Printing Office near the Market

TITLE PAGE OF "POOR RICHARD'S ALMANAC."

Why the royal governors wished union.

Weakness from lack of union.

The royal governors appreciated the need of union, and they naturally sought the advantage of the crown. They urged union as a means of checking the people's power. As representatives of the king they wished (1) to get control of colonial trade, and (2) to take the right of taxation out of the hands of the colonial assemblies. For the people, under the various colonial governments, had acquired much more power than the king wished them to have. For instance, the different assemblies, in their narrow, provincial spirit, would not act together, and were slow to enlist soldiers, build forts, or send armies into the field, where their own territory was in no danger of attack. As a result, there was little united effort to ward off a great danger such as threatened the colonies in the Last French War and in Pontiac's conspiracy. This lack of union explains the purpose of James II. in appointing Andros governor of New England, New York, and New Jersey. He supposed he would strengthen the Northern colonies by uniting them under one government that could act with energy and promptness, but, as we have seen, he failed.

Why the colonies sought union.

The colonies sought union, in so far as they sought it at all, for an entirely different purpose—to ward off the offensive restrictions and impositions of England and to extend and increase the rights of the people.

Franklin's Plan of Union.

From the beginning of the English settlements in America, a democratic spirit was developed by the situation and life of the colonists. But Benjamin Franklin[1] saw that something more than a spirit of democracy or self-government was needed to make a strong people. He saw that they needed a central authority to lay taxes for their mutual defence. Clearly understanding this need, Franklin proposed his famous Plan of Union at the Albany Convention[2] (1754). According to this plan each colony was to elect representatives to a Grand Council, similar to our present National Congress. This Grand Council was to have the power of levying taxes upon the people for raising and maintaining armies and otherwise providing for the defence of the colonies. Moreover, like our present Congress, this Council was to exercise supreme authority in questions affecting all the colonies alike. This was known as the Albany Plan of Union.

---

[1] Benjamin Franklin was born in Boston in 1706 and died in 1790. His father, a soap-boiler and tallow-chandler, had seventeen children, of whom Benjamin was the youngest son. At ten years of age the lad was set to work in his father's shop, but was dissatisfied with the business. Then he tried printing with his brother, but suffered from harsh treatment. Finally, at the age of seventeen he ran away from home to seek his fortune. One Sunday morning he landed in Philadelphia, cold and friendless, and with only a single dollar in his pocket.

In 1732 he began to publish Poor Richard's Almanac, which he continued to publish for twenty years. Full of witty maxims which people could apply with profit to every-day living, it became extremely popular and had an immense sale. Franklin became rich and devoted himself to science. By simple experimenting with a kite, he discovered that lightning is nothing more than discharges of electricity. He invented a kind of open stove which is in use at the present time. At the close of the Revolution he was associated with John Adams and John Jay in securing a treaty of peace with England.

[2] Only seven colonies were represented. This Convention was called to form a closer alliance with the Six Nations.

Reasons for its failure.

The king of England did not like it, because he feared it might encourage the colonies to form a union in which the people would exercise too much power. The colonists did not like it[1] because they were unwilling to give up the right of taxation by their colonial assemblies. Franklin's Plan of Union failed, but it was of great value because it led the people to think seriously about the advantages of union.

TO THE PUPIL

1. How did the Council differ from the Assembly?
2. What were the three political groups of colonies? What was the distinguishing feature of each group?
3. Discuss the nature of the struggle between the various assemblies on the one side and the loyal and proprietary governors on the other. What were the results? In this connection, review the struggle between Governor Berkeley and the people of Virginia and that between Governor Andros and the people of New England. If you get clear ideas about these struggles, you will better understand the causes of the Revolution.
4. Why was there need of union among the colonies? What attempts at union had been made? Why did the royal governors wish union among the colonies? On what grounds did the colonies seek union? What was Franklin's Plan of Union? Why did it fail and what were its results?

CHRONOLOGY

1524. FRENCH EXPEDITION TO AMERICA UNDER VERRAZANO.
1528. PAMPHILO DE NARVAEZ LANDS IN FLORIDA.
1531-33. PIZARRO CONQUERS PERU.
1534. CARTIER SAILS TO THE GULF OF ST. LAWRENCE.
1539. DE SOTO LANDS IN FLORIDA.
1540. CORONADO'S EXPEDITION IN SEARCH OF CIBOLA.
1541. DE SOTO DISCOVERS THE MISSISSIPPI RIVER.
1562. COLIGNY'S FIRST COLONY SENT TO FLORIDA UNDER RIBAULT.
1565. FOUNDING OF ST. AUGUSTINE.
1576. MARTIN FROBISHER DISCOVERS THE STRAIT SINCE CALLED BY HIS NAME.
1579. DRAKE ON THE CALIFORNIA COAST.

---

[1] The plan was presented to the several legislatures, and they all rejected it because they did not strongly feel the need of union.

1584. SIR WALTER RALEIGH'S FIRST EXPEDITION.
1585. RALEIGH'S FIRST COLONY.
1587. RALEIGH'S SECOND COLONY.
1603. FIRST VOYAGE OF SAMUEL DE CHAMPLAIN TO AMERICA.
1606. PATENT GRANTED TO THE VIRGINIA COMPANIES.
1607. FIRST PERMANENT SETTLEMENT OF VIRGINIA AT JAMESTOWN.
1608. FOUNDING OF QUEBEC BY SAMUEL DE CHAMPLAIN.
1609. THE DISCOVERY OF LAKE CHAMPLAIN.
HENRY HUDSON DISCOVERS THE HUDSON RIVER.
1611. SIR THOMAS DALE, GOVERNOR OF VIRGINIA.
1619. FIRST CARGO OF SLAVES BROUGHT TO JAMESTOWN.
FIRST LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY OF VIRGINIA MEETS IN JAMESTOWN.
1620. THE PILGRIMS LAND AT PLYMOUTH.
1623. SETTLEMENT OF NEW HAMPSHIRE AT PORTSMOUTH AND DOVER.
1630. SETTLEMENT OF BOSTON AND NEIGHBORING TOWNS.
1634. SETTLEMENT OF MARYLAND.
1635. PERMANENT SETTLEMENT OF CONNECTICUT BY EMIGRANTS FROM MASSACHUSETTS BAY.
1636. PROVIDENCE FOUNDED BY ROGER WILLIAMS.
1637. THE PEQUOT WAR.
1643. THE CONFEDERATION OF NEW ENGLAND COLONIES FORMED.
1663. CHARTER OF RHODE ISLAND AND PROVIDENCE PLANTATIONS GRANTED BY CHARLES II.
FIRST GRANT OF CAROLINA.
1664. GRANT OF NEW NETHERLAND TO THE DUKE OF YORK, AND ITS SURRENDER TO THE ENGLISH.—NAMED NEW YORK.
GOVERNMENT OF NORTH CAROLINA ESTABLISHED.
GRANT OF NEW JERSEY TO BERKELEY AND CARTERET.
1665. SECOND GRANT OF CAROLINA.
ARRIVAL OF PHILIP CARTERET AS GOVERNOR OF NEW JERSEY.—ELIZABETH FOUNDED.
1673. MARQUETTE EXPLORES THE MISSISSIPPI.
1675. OUTBREAK OF KING PHILIP'S WAR IN NEW ENGLAND.
1676. BACON'S REBELLION IN VIRGINIA.
1679. NEW HAMPSHIRE MADE AN INDEPENDENT ROYAL PROVINCE.
1680. HENNEPIN'S VOYAGE ON THE MISSISSIPPI.
1681. THE GRANT OF PENNSYLVANIA SIGNED.—EMIGRATION BEGUN.
1682. THE FRIENDS BUY EAST JERSEY.
PENN SAILS FOR AMERICA.
PHILADELPHIA FOUNDED.
PENN'S INDIAN TREATY.
LA SALLE'S VOYAGE ON THE MISSISSIPPI.
1685. LA SALLE'S COLONY FOUNDED IN TEXAS.
1686. ANDROS GOVERNOR-GENERAL OF NEW ENGLAND.
1687. ANDROS ATTEMPTS TO SEIZE THE CONNECTICUT CHARTER.
1689. ARREST OF ANDROS AT BOSTON.
1692. OUTBREAK OF THE WITCHCRAFT PANIC AT SALEM, MASS.
1700. IBERVILLE ESTABLISHES A SETTLEMENT AT POVERTY POINT, LA.
1702. BEGINNING OF QUEEN ANNE'S WAR.
1715. FIVE NATIONS BECOME SIX BY ADDITION OF THE TUSCARORAS.
1733. OGELTHORPE'S COLONY SETTLES IN GEORGIA.
SUGAR AND MOLASSES ACT.
1744. BEGINNING OF KING GEORGE'S WAR.

1745. CAPTURE OF LOUISBURG.
1748. OHIO COMPANY FORMED.
  LOUISBURG RESTORED TO FRANCE.
1754. COLONIAL CONGRESS AT ALBANY, AND FRANKLIN'S PLAN OF UNION.
1755. BRADDOCK'S DEFEAT.
  BANISHMENT OF THE ACADIANS.
1756. FORT OSWEGO SURRENDERED TO THE FRENCH.
  BEGINNING OF THE LAST FRENCH WAR.
1757. MASSACRE OF FORT WILLIAM HENRY.
1758. DEFEAT OF ABERCROMBIE AT FORT TICONDEROGA.
  RECAPTURE OF LOUISBURG.
1759. FORT TICONDEROGA TAKEN BY AMHERST.
  CAPTURE OF FORT NIAGARA BY THE ENGLISH.
  WOLFE CAPTURES QUEBEC.
1761. ATTEMPT TO ENFORCE WRITS OF ASSISTANCE IN MASSACHUSETTS.
1763. PONTIAC'S WAR.
  TREATY OF PARIS.

The Revolution, the Confederation, and the Federal Union

CHAPTER XIII

THE REVOLUTION

REFERENCES: **Scribner's** Popular History of the United States, III. and IV.; **Andrews's** United States, I.; **Fiske's** War of Independence; **Sloane's** French War and the Revolution; **Hart's** Formation of the Union; **Channing's** United States; **Richardson's** History of Our Country; **Coffin's** Boys of '76; **Barnes's** Popular History of the United States; **Cooke's** Stories of the Old Dominion; **Hale's** Stories of Massachusetts.

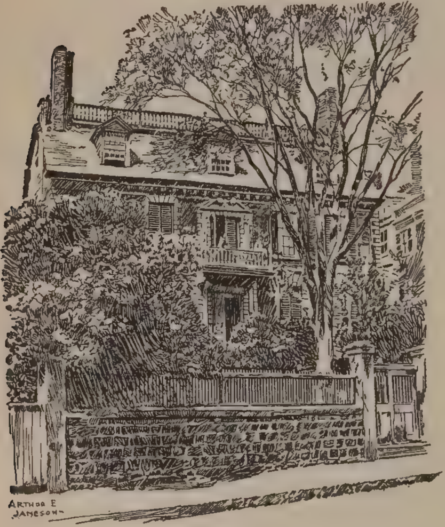
OUTSIDE READINGS: **Trevelyan's** The American Revolution; **Winsor's** Narrative and Critical History, VI. and VII.; **Bancroft's** United States, III.; **Fiske's** American Revolution; **Hildreth's** United States, II. and III.; **Lossing's** Field Book of the Revolution; **Lecky's** England in the Eighteenth Century, III.; **Wilson's** History of the American People, II.; **Frothingham's** Rise of the Republic; **Goldwin Smith's** United States; **Morris's** Half Hours with American History, II.; **Hale's** Franklin in France; **Hart's** Camps and Firesides of the Revolution; **Roosevelt's** Winning the West, I. and II.; **Greene's** Historical View of the American Revolution; **Hinsdale's** Old Northwest; **Green's** History of the English People, IV.; **Drake's** Burgoyne's Invasion; **Abbot's** Blue Jackets of '76; **Brown's** Mercy Warren; **Wharton's** Martha Washington; **Hosmer's** Samuel Adams; **Henry's** Patrick Henry; **Morse's** John Adams; **Scudder's** George Washington; **Hale's** George Washington; **Abbot's** Paul Jones; **Spark's** Life of Arnold; **Arnold's** Life of Arnold; **Lossing's** Two Spies; **Spear's** The History of Our Navy; **Ford's** The True Benjamin Franklin; **Thwaites's** Daniel Boone; **Greene's** General Greene; **Brady's** Commodore Paul Jones; **Wilson's** George Washington; **Ford's** The True George Washington.

FICTION: **Cooper's** Lionel Lincoln; **Henty's** True to the Old Flag; **Cooper's** Spy; **Harte's** Thankful Blossom; **Cooper's** Pilot; **Simms's** Partisan; **Mitchell's** Hugh Wynne; **Brady's** For Love of Country; **Churchill's** Richard Carvel; **Thompson's** Alice of Old Vincennes; **Comfort's** Arnold's Tempter.

POETRY: **Holmes's** Grandmother's Story of Bunker Hill Battle; Independence Bell; **Bryant's** Seventy-six; **Bryant's** Song of Marion's Men.

The Causes of the Revolution

113. England Tries to Control American Commerce.—In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries European countries planted colonies as a means of increasing their own trade. In accordance with this theory, England valued her American colonies according to the wealth she gained from them. To secure control of colonial trade, therefore, Parliament began in 1651, thirty-one years after the landing of the Pilgrims, to pass the famous Navigation Laws and Acts of Trade. These laws required (1) that all trade between the colonies should be carried on in ships built in England or in the colonies; (2) that the colonies should not export such colonial products as sugar, tobacco, iron, furs and lumber to any part of the world except England, or some English colony; (3) that all European goods should be bought in England and brought over to the colonies on English vessels; (4) that the colonies should not manufacture any article that could be manufactured in England.

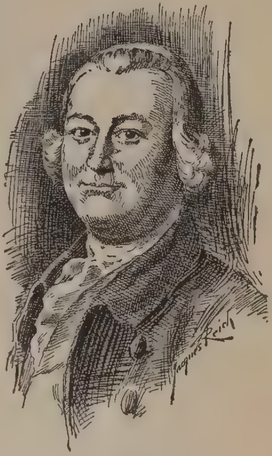


JOHN HANCOCK HOUSE, BOSTON, MASS.

The Navigation Laws and Acts of Trade.

These laws injure the colonies in four ways.

The carrying out of these laws would injure the colonists in the following ways: (1) A profitable trade with the Dutch would be cut off at a single stroke; (2) whatever colonial products the English manufacturer needed he could buy of the colonies at his own price; (3) as the colonists were compelled to buy European goods in England, they had to pay whatever English merchants charged, or not buy at all; (4) while the law providing that all European goods should be imported in English ships would put money into the pockets of the English ship-owner, it would almost ruin the ship-building industry in the colonies and throw thousands of sailors out of employment.


JAMES OTIS.

114. The Sugar Act and Smuggling.—In 1733 the famous Sugar Act was passed to protect the English West India sugar islands. By this act a prohibitory duty was laid upon the sugar and molasses imported into the colonies from the French islands in the West Indies. The principal exports of New England were lumber and fish. The inferior qualities of fish were carried to the French islands and exchanged with profit for sugar and molasses. There was thus a double advantage to New England in this trade: (1) The French would buy fish which were not salable elsewhere; (2) they were willing to sell at a low price their sugar and molasses. On the other hand, the New Englanders made the sugar and molasses into rum, part of which they consumed at home, and the remainder they took to Africa, where they exchanged it for slaves to be sold to the Southern colonies. All this trade was extremely profitable for New England, and was one of the principal sources of wealth. New England merchants saw that if the Sugar Act should be enforced the profits of their West India trade must be greatly diminished. Financial ruin threatened them. They had to choose between that and smuggling. They chose smuggling, because they believed the law was an unjust interference with the natural rights of free-born Englishmen.

Advantages of trading with the French West Indies.

Smuggling or financial ruin.

115. James Otis Defends New England Merchants against Writs of Assistance.—As long as England allowed this smuggling to go on, all went well with the colonies. But after the Last French War the English Government decided to put a stop to this contraband trade. England was greatly in debt. Money had to be raised, and it was thought that by enforcing the Navigation and Trade Laws the profits of colonial trade would be turned over to English merchants. Legal papers called Writs of Assistance were issued (1761). They were general search-warrants, which empowered officers to go into any warehouse or private dwelling in search of contraband goods. With these odious papers in hand, custom-house officers could at any time enter a warehouse or a private dwelling, and ransack it from garret to cellar. In this way many thousand dollars' worth of goods were seized and confiscated.

England issues Writs of Assistance.

HONI SOIT QUI MAL Y PENSE
B
1 SHILLING

A ROYAL STAMP.

Otis declares that "Taxation without representation is tyranny."

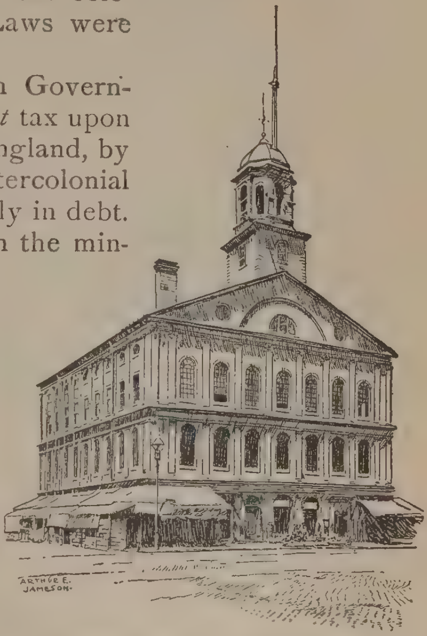
The people were furious. James Otis, of Massachusetts, defended the colonial merchants in a test case. He made a great speech, in which he earnestly contended that the colonists were not bound to obey any law not made by their own representatives. The keynote of his speech was "Taxation without representation is tyranny," and it sounded from Massachusetts to Georgia.

116. Parliament Passes the Stamp Act.—We have just seen how England, in protecting her merchants, shipowners, and manufacturers, had indirectly[1] taxed the colonies. In thus taxing them England regarded the colonies as trading companies whose main purpose, from her standpoint, was to enrich the mother-country. The colonies had submitted to such indirect taxation of their trade and industries because (1) it was usual, the world over, for colonies to have their trade thus taxed by their mother-country; (2) the English navy protected the commerce of the colonies; and (3) the Trade Laws were not strictly enforced.

---

[1] A tax levied directly on a person or property is a direct tax. One levied on trade is an indirect tax. When a man pays a tax on his house, his horse and carriage, or any other form of property, he pays a direct tax. When a merchant imports goods upon which a duty has been laid by the government, he pays this duty to the government through the custom-house. Such a duty is called an indirect tax. The taxes for the support of our national government are usually indirect.

The colonies submit to indirect taxation for three reasons.


ARTHUR E. JAMESON.

FANEUIL HALL, BOSTON, MASS.[1]

The colonies to be required to help to maintain a standing army in America.

But in 1764 the English Government decided to levy a *direct* tax upon them. As we have seen, England, by reason of the expensive Intercolonial Wars (1689–1763), was greatly in debt. The king's representative in the ministry, Lord Grenville, maintained that this debt was incurred in the defence of the colonies. He said that it was now time that the colonies should pay their share of their defence. Grenville seemed to forget that the colonies *had* paid their share and were themselves heavily in debt. He seemed to forget, also, that all these wars were fought quite as much to protect the English trade as to defend the colonies. Now that the French were driven out, a standing army of from 10,000 to 20,000 men was to be kept up in America for the purpose, among other things, of protecting the colonies from the Indians. A standing army, it was argued, would prevent a repetition of an Indian uprising such as Pontiac's conspiracy. Moreover, if such a permanent standing army was to be maintained in the colonies for their defence, it seemed fair to Grenville and to the king that the colonies should share in the expense.

---

[1] Faneuil Hall was built in 1742 by a Boston merchant named Peter Faneuil and presented by him to the town of Boston. The first floor was to be used as a

Colonies slow in paying taxes during the Intercolonial Wars.

During the Intercolonial Wars the various colonies paid their share of expense by raising money in response to requisition made by the king's agents. But they were very slow about it. It was difficult to get any legislature to vote money for soldiers and supplies unless the danger threatened its own colony. Such a system was weak and lame, and it prevented prompt and united action. Some more effective plan of taxation seemed not only desirable but imperative. The Stamp Act offered such a scheme, and it became a law in March,[1] 1765.

OLD STATE HOUSE, BOSTON, MASS.

117. How the Stamp Act Was Received in America.—

The Stamp Act.

This act required the colonies to use stamped paper for newspapers, almanacs, pamphlets, advertisements, and all kinds of legal documents. These stamps cost all the way from six cents to thirty dollars each. Grenville

---

market house; the second as a town hall. Just before the Revolution, so many public meetings were held in Faneuil Hall that it was called "The Cradle of Liberty." In "The Cradle of Liberty" the people met, day after day, in 1773 (see par. 127) to decide upon some plan of action about the tea in Boston Harbor. The last of these meetings was so large that it had to be held in the Old South Church.

[1] It is certain that up to this time, as later during the Revolution (1775-1783), and the critical period (1783-1789), the American people suffered greatly for lack of some central taxing power. England's purpose was to supply this lack by a system of direct taxation furnished in the Stamp Act.

thought this tax would be fair because it would fall upon all alike.

But he found that the Stamp Act aroused a storm of angry opposition throughout the colonies.[1] Organizations called "Sons of Liberty" were formed. Merchants banded together to import no more goods from England until the Stamp Act should be repealed. They urged the necessity of manufacturing in the colonies. They decided to stop eating mutton, that they might have more wool for making cloth. The day the Stamp Act went into effect was made a day of mourning.[2] Bells tolled, flags were lowered, and business houses were closed to indicate that liberty was dead.

Its effects upon the colonists.

PATRICK HENRY.

118. Patrick Henry Introduces the Virginia Resolutions.—In May the Virginia Legislature met at Williamsburg. It included the most eminent men of Virginia, and they were anxious to act wisely. In the midst of the general doubt and perplexity, Patrick Henry[3] arose and introduced his famous resolutions. In these he declared that the "General Assembly of the colony had the sole right and power of laying taxes in the colony." An exciting debate followed. George Washington was present, and Thomas Jefferson stood at the door earnestly listening. He tells us later that the discussion was "most bloody." The opposition only fired the passion of Henry, and in a burst of wrathful eloquence he ended his speech in words never to be forgotten. "Cæsar had his Brutus, Charles the First his Cromwell, and George the Third" — "Treason! Treason!" wildly shouted some of the members. The orator paused a moment and then calmly added, "may profit by their example. If this be treason, make the most of it." The excitement caused by this speech travelled like wildfire through the colonies. Massachusetts and Virginia had declared themselves and were ready to join hands in open resistance.

---

[1] At Portsmouth, New Hampshire, the people bore to an open grave a coffin with this inscription: "Liberty, aged CXLV years." The solemn procession marched to the beating of muffled drums. On reaching the grave the people listened to a funeral oration over Liberty, which was supposed to be lying dead, but just as they were lowering the coffin some one cried, "There are signs of life!" The coffin was eagerly raised, and "Liberty Revived" was inscribed upon it. At once the people shouted themselves hoarse because Liberty was once more alive.

[2] The brave women did their share, also. They formed organizations called "Daughters of Liberty," and agreed to buy no more goods imported from England. They formed "Spinning Societies," and wove cloth for the men to wear.

[3] He was at this time just twenty-nine, tall in figure, but stooping, with a grim expression, small, blue eyes which had a peculiar twinkle, and wore a brown wig without powder, a "peach-blossom coat," leather knee-breeches, and yarn stockings. He had ridden to Williamsburg on "a lean horse," and carried his papers in

Patrick Henry's famous resolutions

and speech.

119. The Stamp Act Congress (1765).—The English Government made a great mistake in passing the Stamp Act. The enforcement of the Sugar Act affected the Middle and Southern colonies so little that they doubtless would not have joined New England in resistance to Parliament on this issue alone. But in the Stamp Act a grievance was presented which affected all the colonies alike. It furnished them a common ground for resistance and a common purpose for united action. Accordingly, the passing of the Stamp Act had a most important and significant result in strengthening the union of the colonies. In June Massachusetts sent out a call for a general congress to discuss the situation and agree upon some plan of action. Representatives from nine of the colonies met at New York in October and passed resolutions similar to those of Virginia. They sent a memorial to the king acknowledging his sovereignty, and a remonstrance to Parliament declaring it had no right to tax

England's mistake in passing the Stamp Act.

a pair of saddle-bags. . . . As Henry came out of the Capitol a man of the crowd slapped him on the shoulder and cried:

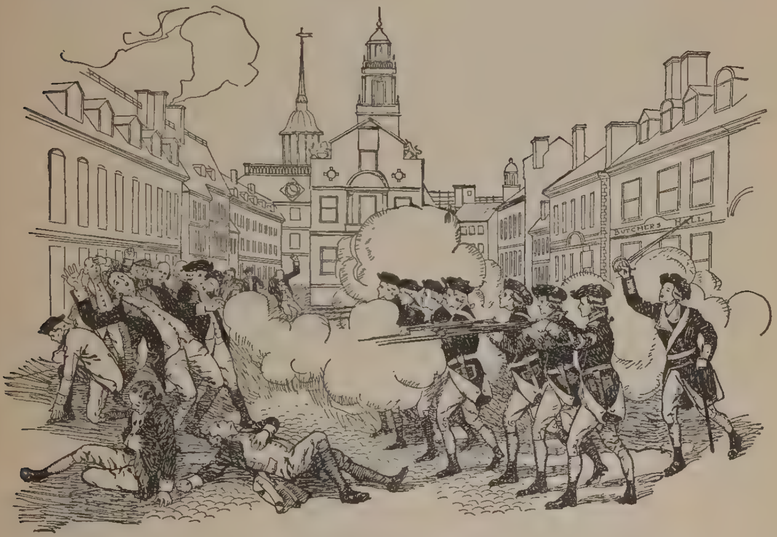
"Stick to us, old fellow, or we are gone."—Cooke's Virginia.

them. This congress should have been a warning to George III.

Effect of non-importation upon English merchants.

William Pitt opposes the Stamp Act.

120. Repeal of the Stamp Act (1766).—But the most effective action of the colonists was their non-importation agreements. One-third of England's trade was with the colonies. In 1772 it amounted to $30,000,000. Non-importation, therefore, caused a serious loss to English merchants, and they eagerly begged Parliament to repeal the Stamp Act. The debate in Parliament over the repeal showed that many English statesmen stoutly defended the colonies in their opposition to the direct taxation without representation. Said William Pitt in a stirring speech in the House of Commons: "Sir, I rejoice that America has resisted! Three millions of people so dead to all the feelings of liberty as voluntarily to submit to be slaves would have been fit instruments to make slaves of all the rest." Parliament voted to repeal the act, but de-



THE "BOSTON MASSACRE."

After an engraving by Paul Revere.

clared its *right* to *bind* the colonies in all cases. It was this very *right* to tax an unrepresented people that the colonies called in question.

121. Taxation Without Representation in America.—The colonists claimed that as freeborn Englishmen in America they had, granted to them in their charters, the same rights and privileges as freeborn Englishmen in the mother-country. The only difference between the man of Kent (England) and the man of Massachusetts was in the authority that taxed him. The government in Kent consisted of the king and Parliament; the government in Massachusetts of the king and the colonial assembly. The king could exercise no more power in Massachusetts than in Kent, while the taxing power in Kent was Parliament and in Massachusetts was the colonial assembly. This was the position taken by the Whig[1] party in America, not by all the colonists.

122. Taxation Without Representation in England.—We cannot understand the real meaning of the Revolution in America without looking into a similar struggle that was at the same time going on in England. Some Americans did not oppose England and some Englishmen did not join hands against America. It was in each country the same kind of struggle—a struggle between hostile principles. There was taxation without representation in England as well as in America, and many Englishmen, like William Pitt, were as much opposed to it there as men like Samuel Adams and Patrick Henry were opposed to it in America. William Pitt and his followers represented the true feeling of the English people toward America.

The English people not fairly represented in Parliament.

At this time Parliament did not fairly represent the people of England. Great towns like Manchester, Liverpool, Birmingham, and Leeds were not represented at all, and members were returned for boroughs that had no existence except in name. Such boroughs were called rotten boroughs, or pocket boroughs, which were owned by the great families. Long after Old Sarum, a noted rotten borough, had no population, a member, representing its owner, was returned to the House of Commons. In a population of 8,000,000 only about 160,000, or one-tenth of the men of voting age in England, could vote.[1] A few great families controlled the House of Commons. Certainly the mass of Englishmen could justly complain of taxation without representation. Among them was the great William Pitt, who urged upon the people the justice of parliamentary reform, with a fair and full representation of the English people in the House of Commons.

---

[1] The Whigs were those who opposed the king's schemes of taxing the Americans without their consent. The supporters of the king, who at this time included a large part of the American people, were called Loyalists, or Tories.

OLD SOUTH CHURCH, BOSTON.

123. George III. and Personal Government.—"George, be King," said George the Third's mother when he was crowned. That advice pleased the young ruler, who was then only twenty-two years old. His controlling purpose was to establish personal government in England. His desire for arbitrary power, together with his narrowness and bigotry, had much influence in bringing on the Revolution. He cared little for the rights of the people. The more power they had the less he would enjoy. By the corrupt use of money he succeeded in con-

The views of George III.

---

[1] In our own country the people are fairly and equally represented in the national House of Representatives. The unit of representation, or the number of people entitled to one representative since the last census of 1900, has been 194,182. This means that the number of representatives in Congress from any State may be found by dividing its population by 194,182. For example, Pennsylvania has 32

trolling the elections. His desire was to make Parliament represent him and a few great families that were in the political ring with him. He maintained his influence largely through boss-like methods, keeping his followers under control by the use of an immense corruption fund. As long as a large number of small boroughs remained under the control of his friends, the king could maintain his tyrannical hold upon the government.

Why the king wished to tax the Americans.

But if the Americans should succeed in their struggle for "No taxation without representation," there was little doubt that in time Englishmen would succeed in a similar struggle for parliamentary reform, or "No taxation without representation" in England. If the Americans were not repressed, their success would make certain the failure of the king's pet scheme of personal government. King George, therefore, was deeply chagrined when the Stamp Act was repealed. He could not let the matter rest here, however, but the next year (1767) he again tried to force new taxes upon America. We shall see how well he succeeded.

124. The New Taxes of 1767.—In 1767 Townshend, acting as the king's tool, induced Parliament to levy new port duties on a few articles, including glass, lead, paper, and tea. The colonies had objected to a stamp tax because it was a direct tax. As these new taxes were indirect, Townshend and King George thought the Americans might not refuse to pay them. But in this they wholly misunderstood the temper and feeling of the American people. The new taxes were opposed quite as violently as the Stamp Act had been.

Purpose of the new taxes.

We can easily understand the feelings of the colonists when we see the purpose of the taxes. The Sugar Act (see par. 114) was to be strictly enforced by commissioners who were to use the hated Writs of Assistance in searching for smuggled goods. The money raised by these taxes was to be used not only to pay

representatives and Delaware but one. But every State, large or small, has two members in the Senate.

ST. JOHN'S CHURCH, RICHMOND, VA.

Where the famous orator Patrick Henry made his great speech.

the colonial governors, judges, and crown attorneys, and thus make all these officials independent of the people, but also to maintain a small English army in the colonies. The remainder, if there should be any, was to be used in pensioning men of influence. This last was in reality a corruption fund to bribe men to become the king's tools. Thus we see that the colonists themselves were to pay the taxes which should keep their governors and judges independent of them.

Bitter opposition to the new taxes.

When we recall the bitter struggle between the people and the royal governors over this question of allowing a fixed salary, we can easily realize why this measure was so unpopular. Then, too, in paying this tax the people were supporting a standing army whose presence was plainly intended to enforce the personal rule of the king. In a word, the people were to pay taxes whose real purpose was to deprive them of the rights of freeborn citizens.

Massachusetts led in the opposition. She sent a circular letter to the other colonies for the purpose of securing some united plan of action against the Townshend Acts.

Results.

The result was that the colonies again agreed to import no more goods from England, and they thus greatly injured English ship-owners and merchants. In the next two years English imports to New England fell off one-half, and to New York five-sixths.

125. The Redcoats[1] and the "Boston Massacre" (1770).—King George at length decided to send troops to America to enforce the revenue laws. In the autumn of 1768 they arrived in Boston. Their presence was regarded as a menace and was a constant source of annoyance. Quarrels between them and the people were of frequent occurrence; and finally one evening in March, 1770, the crisis came in a disturbance which took place in State Street in front of what was then the Custom House but is now the old State House. The soldiers fired upon the people, killing three and wounding many others. This was called the "Boston Massacre." The next day an immense town meeting was held, and the people, through Samuel Adams as spokesman, demanded that the troops should be removed. They were withdrawn to an island in the harbor.

126. Committees of Correspondence (1772-1773).—The need of united action among the towns of Massachusetts was now pressing. It was hard to tell what new danger might at any hour fall upon the people. So Samuel Adams proposed, in town meeting, that committees of correspondence should be appointed in the towns. His plan was carried out (1772). In the following year Dabney Carr of Virginia suggested committees of correspondence for the various colonies. When these committees were organized the colonies rapidly drew closer and closer together in their sympathies. This was a bold step, which led later, as we shall see, to the Continental Congress and open war.

---

[1] The English soldiers wore red uniforms. They were therefore called Redcoats.

127. Samuel Adams[1] and the "Boston Tea Party" (1773).—The new duties were no more successful than the Stamp Act had been, for again colonial merchants refused to import English goods. Again English merchants begged for a repeal. But the stupid king could not understand the Americans. Thus far he had failed. He now resorted to a trick by which he hoped to induce the colonists to pay a small tax levied by Parliament. He took off all the new taxes except the one on tea. "There must be one tax to keep the right to tax," he said. The tax on tea was to be only threepence a pound in America, instead of sixpence, as in England. This not only enabled the colonists to buy tea cheaper than it could be bought by the people in England, but also cheaper than it could be bought when the colonists smuggled it from Holland. But still they refused to import the taxed tea.

George Third's trick in levying the tax on tea.

The East India Company decided to ship cargoes to such important ports as Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and Charleston. When the tea arrived the people in New York and Philadelphia refused to let it land, and the people in Charleston stored it in damp cellars where it spoiled. In Boston the people were determined to send it back, but Governor Hutchinson refused to let this be done. For nineteen days the struggle continued. On the nineteenth day the excitement in Boston was intense. If the cargo of tea should remain in the harbor till the twentieth day the law permitted it to be landed. All day long the town meeting continued in Boston. Seven thousand men crowded the Old South Church[2] and the streets outside.

Taxed tea sent to America.

---

[1] Samuel Adams has been called the "Father of the Revolution." He was distinguished for his courage and perseverance and for his ability as a leader of men. Like Jefferson, he was full of sympathy for the toiling masses and easily won their confidence. In 1774 General Gage offered him money and official advancement if he would give his influence and services to the king. Although Samuel Adams was poor, yet true to himself and to his countrymen, he scorned the offer. He was the first American to advocate independence of England, and was one of the foremost leaders that prepared the people to adopt the Declaration of Independence.

[2] The Old South Church is still standing on Washington Street, at the corner of Milk Street.

At nightfall a messenger brought word from the governor that he would not permit the tea to be returned to England. At once Samuel Adams, moderator of the meeting, arose and said: "This meeting can do nothing more to save the country." As if this were the signal, a warwhoop was heard, and forty or fifty men, disguised as Indians, proceeded down the street toward Griffin's Wharf.[1] Boarding the tea-ships they ripped open every chest and spilled the tea into the harbor. A large party of people stood by while the "Indians" were emptying the chests, but every-one was quiet and orderly. This was the famous "Boston Tea Party," at which some of the best people of Boston were present (1773).

The "Boston Tea Party."

OLD NORTH CHURCH, BOSTON, MASS.

128. Boston Punished for its Tea Party.—King George was very angry at these high-handed proceedings. In order to punish the Boston people for what they had done, Parliament passed the Boston Port Bill, which closed the port of Boston to all trade until the town should pay for the tea that had been destroyed. Another law, known as the Massachusetts Act, annulled the charter and took away free government from the people. A military governor, General Gage, like the Stuart governor, Andros, was appointed to stand for the tyranny of an arbitrary king. Surely George III. and his followers little realized the love of self-government in these stubborn, unruly colonists!

129. The Colonies Unite in Support of Massachusetts.—The English Government determined to make an example of Boston, and hoped in this way to frighten the

---

[1] A tablet on Atlantic Avenue now marks the spot where the Tea Party reached the wharf.

THE RETREAT FROM CONCORD.

other colonies into submission. Contrary to the expectation of the Government, the effect of the oppressive measures was to unite the colonies in sympathetic support of the Massachusetts people. Through the committees of correspondence the colonies could now act together more promptly than ever before. Provisions were sent from every direction to the suffering people in Boston. Help came from even the far-away Carolinas. Patrick Henry[1] angrily cried: "We must fight. I repeat it, sir; we must fight. I know not what course others may take, but as for me, give me liberty or give me death."

"We must fight."

The excitement was everywhere intense. United action was a necessity. The Continental Congress, meeting in Carpenters' Hall, Philadelphia, was the outcome (September 5, 1774). All the colonies except Georgia[2] were represented. This Congress declared the colonies had a right to govern themselves and levy their own taxes. It further declared that, should England attempt to force Massachusetts to submission, the other colonies would join Massachusetts in forcible resistance.

The Continental Congress.

TO THE PUPIL

1. **Name four requirements of the Navigation Laws and the Acts of Trade. In what four ways did these laws injure the colonists?**
2. **What advantages did New England merchants have in trading with the French islands in the West Indies? Do you think these merchants were right in smuggling? Give reasons for your answer. How were the Writs of Assistance connected with smuggling?**
3. **What is the difference between a direct and an indirect tax? Why had the colonies submitted to indirect taxation?**
4. **What was the object of the English Government in levying the stamp tax? From the English stand-point, give reasons why it was just that such a tax should be imposed upon the Americans.**

---

[1] This great speech by the famous orator of the Revolution was made in "Old St. John's Church," Richmond, Va. This church is still standing.

[2] Georgia people were in sympathy with the Congress, but her royal governor prevented the appointment of delegates.

5. Subject for debate: Resolved that England had the right to levy the stamp tax upon the colonies.
6. What colonies did the Sugar Act of 1733 affect most seriously? What colonies did the Stamp Act affect? How, then, did the English Government make a great mistake in passing the Stamp Act?
7. Why did England repeal the Stamp Act?
8. What did James Otis mean by saying that "taxation without representation is tyranny"? In what way did Otis and those agreeing with him think that direct taxes should be levied in America? Was Otis right in his views of taxation? Give reasons for your answer.
9. Why were William Pitt and his followers in England opposed to the Stamp Act? Do you see clearly what was meant by taxation without representation in England?
10. What were King George's ideas of government for both England and America? If a man like William Pitt had been king of England, do you think there would have been any American Revolution? Give reasons for your answer.
11. What was the purpose of the new taxes of 1767? Why were committees of correspondence organized and with what result? Find out all you can about the influence of Samuel Adams in these trying times.
12. What events led to the Boston Tea Party? You can easily trace the connection between the destruction of the tea and the Continental Congress.
13. Make an outline of the topics discussed under the "Causes of the Revolution" and try to discover a causal connection between the events.
14. 1763 and 1775, between which most of these events took place, are well worth remembering.
15. In studying the Revolution, do not fail to read Fiske's War of Independence.

THE WAR BEGINS

130. Battles of Lexington and Concord (April 19, 1775).—General Gage, as military governor of Massachusetts, remained at Boston with 3,000 British troops. But the people outside of Boston refused to recognize his authority, and through their Provincial Congress governed themselves as well as they could. This Congress was a provisional government, organized by the people to take the place of the Colonial Assembly which General Gage had

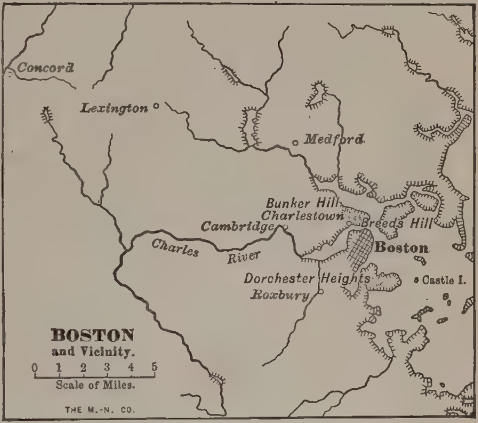
THE BATTLE OF BUNKER HILL.

dissolved. John Hancock was its president, and Samuel Adams was its leading spirit. It prepared for war. Twenty thousand men were ordered to be ready, at a minute's notice, to march to any point of danger. They were called "minute-men."

The Provincial Congress and the "minute-men."

In April General Gage received orders from England to arrest John Hancock and Samuel Adams and send them to England to be tried for treason. About the same time the governor heard that the minute-men had collected some military stores at Concord, twenty miles from Boston. As Hancock and Adams were staying with a friend in Lexington, Gage decided to send out troops for the purpose of arresting them and at the same time destroying the military stores at Concord. About midnight eight hundred English soldiers started from Boston. But the minute-men were on the watch. Dr. Joseph Warren[1] sent Paul Revere and William Dawes[2] to warn his two friends and to spread the alarm, "The regulars are coming!"

English troops sent to Lexington and Concord.



---

[1] Dr. Joseph Warren was a prominent patriot leader and a warm friend of Samuel Adams. Referring to the British soldiers he said: "Those fellows say we won't fight. By heavens, I hope I shall die up to my knees in blood." He was killed at Bunker Hill.

[2] William Dawes rode on horseback by way of Roxbury. Paul Revere went over from Boston to Charlestown in a boat and there awaited a signal which was given by a lantern hung in the belfry of the Old North Church. At eleven o'clock on that beautiful moonlight night he mounted his horse. Speeding his way through Medford he barely escaped capture by some British officers. From Lexington, where his warning saved Hancock and Adams from capture, he pressed on toward Concord, in company with Dr. Samuel Prescott and William Dawes. Between

Early next morning (April 19, 1775), when the English troops reached Lexington, Hancock and Adams had made their escape, and a party of minute-men were drawn up on Lexington Common. Soon the English fired upon them, killing seven of their number, and then passed on to Concord. Here they destroyed the small part of the military stores which the Americans had not had time to conceal. Again they found minute-men, in ever-increasing numbers, angrily facing them. At the old Concord Bridge the fight began in earnest, and men fell on each side. From every direction the minute-men came flocking in, and the English were forced to retreat, loading and firing as they marched.

THE WASHINGTON ELM AT CAMBRIDGE.

The fight at Concord Bridge.

Lexington and Concord some British officers captured Dawes and Revere, took them back to Lexington, and there released them. Paul Revere's ride is graphically described in Longfellow's famous poem, but some of the details are not historically accurate.

THE FIGHT ON LEXINGTON COMMON, APRIL 19, 1775.

From behind rocks and trees, fences and barns, the minute-men shot the tired soldiers. On the English soldiers pushed, but they had to leave the dead and dying scattered along the road. At Lexington they met reinforcements sent from Boston. But for these fresh troops all of the eight hundred men sent out to Concord would have been captured. As it was, the whole force of about 2,000 men fled in confusion from Lexington to Boston, barely saving themselves from capture. The British lost about three hundred men; the Americans about one hundred. The British were glad to find shelter in Boston, around which in a few days were gathered 16,000 Americans. It was a good beginning for the patriot army.

Retreat of the English to Boston.

131. The Colonies Unite for Resistance.—On May 10 (1775) there was a second meeting of the Continental Congress at Philadelphia. John Hancock, of Massachusetts, was chosen president. The colonies voted to unite in resisting England, and for that purpose to raise an army of 20,000 men, whose expenses were to be paid by the united colonies. George Washington was appointed commander-in-chief of the Continental army.

The second meeting of the Continental Congress.

While Congress was passing these war measures New England was actually engaged in pushing the war. Sixteen thousand yeoman troops were already besieging Boston, and, on the day that Congress met, Ethan Allen from Vermont and Benedict Arnold from Connecticut led a force which surprised and captured Ticonderoga, thus securing an important fort. Two days later Crown Point was taken. With these forts they secured two hundred and twenty cannon and other military supplies. The Americans now had control of the line of communication between New York and Canada. They vainly hoped Canada would join them in their struggle. In November, 1775, they captured St. John's and Montreal. On December 30th Montgomery and Arnold made a gallant attack upon Quebec but were driven back. Montgomery was killed and Arnold wounded. It was

Americans capture Ticonderoga and Crown Point.

plain that the colonies meant to fight and that the war had already begun.

132. Battle of Bunker Hill (June 17, 1775).—In the meantime the English troops had been increased to 10,000, and Howe had been sent over to take the place of Gage as their commander. The English general saw the importance of occupying the heights in Charlestown known as Bunker Hill and Breed's Hill. If the Americans should secure them it would be very difficult for the British troops to remain in Boston. But the English were not quick enough. About the middle of the night preceding June 17th, 1,500 Americans, led by Colonel Prescott and aided later by General Putnam and General Warren, began throwing up breastworks on Breed's Hill. All night they toiled, and in the morning the British were surprised to find that the Americans had got ahead of them in occupying this important position.

THE CRAIGIE HOUSE, WASHINGTON'S HEADQUARTERS AT CAMBRIDGE (AFTERWARD THE RESIDENCE OF LONGFELLOW).

The Americans fortify Breed's Hill.

Later in the day Howe, at the head of about 2,500 men, tried to drive the Americans out of their intrenchments. The British supposed the Americans would not stand an attack, but in this they were mistaken. As the English troops marched up the hill the Americans bravely waited until the regulars were within fifty yards. Prescott's orders were "Aim low! wait till you see the whites of their eyes." They did wait, and then they poured forth such a deadly fire that the English retreated down the hill, leaving the ground covered with their dead and wounded. Before making a second attack the English set fire to Charlestown, and then a second time were driven by American bullets down the hill. By this time the ammunition of the Americans had given out, and slowly and stubbornly they retired, fighting with clubbed muskets as they went. Among their dead was the brave General Warren.

General Howe attacks the Americans.

The British lost over one thousand, or more than one-third of their attacking force, while the Americans lost about four hundred and fifty. Although the Americans had to give up their position they gained a moral victory because their brave fighting inspired the people with courage and hope. When Washington heard that the raw American troops stood fire he said: "The liberties of the country are safe." It was a glad day for the American colonies.

Results of the battle of Bunker Hill.

133. Washington Drives the British out of Boston.—About two weeks after the battle of Bunker Hill Washington arrived at Cambridge and formally took command of the American army (July 3), under the famous elm still standing near Harvard University. His army was in no condition for fighting. The men were in every way without proper equipment. Only a limited number had muskets, and very few had bayonets. Besides, there was a great scarcity of cannon and powder. Of course, under such conditions, Washington could not attack the enemy. But with patience and faith he awaited the hour when he could strike a telling blow.

Washington's army.

Early in March, 1776, having received cannon[1] and ammunition, he seized Dorchester Heights, on the south of Boston, and threw up intrenchments there as the Americans had done on Bunker Hill in the previous June. Howe saw that he must drive Washington off the heights or leave Boston. He proposed to storm the works, but bad weather delayed him until the position had been made too strong to be successfully attacked. The British therefore evacuated Boston and went to Halifax.

The Americans seize Dorchester Heights.

TO THE PUPIL

1. Why were English troops sent to Lexington and Concord? What results followed this expedition?
2. Impersonating Paul Revere, write an account of his famous ride. What did the Continental Congress do at its second meeting?
3. As an aid to the intelligent study of the Battle of Bunker Hill, draw a map of Boston and its surroundings. Why was this battle fought? What effect did it have upon the Americans?
4. Describe the difficulties Washington had to face after taking command of the American army.
5. Do not fail to read, over and over again, Holmes's Grandmother's Story of Bunker Hill Battle.

THE STRUGGLE FOR THE HUDSON RIVER AND THE MIDDLE STATES IN 1776

134. The Declaration of Independence (July 4, 1776).—

When the first gun of the Revolution was fired, Samuel Adams stood almost alone in his wish for the political separation of America from England. One year later, however, the desire for independence grew rapidly. The king had refused to hear the petition sent to him by the Continental Congress; he had called the colonists rebels; he had sent his ships of war to burn their towns; and, worst of all, had

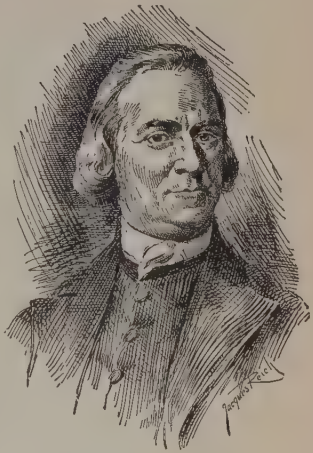
Desire for independence grows rapidly.

---

[1] These cannon, numbering fifty, came from Ticonderoga, which had been captured the previous year. Along with other supplies, they were brought down on sledges drawn by oxen.

hired Hessian[1] soldiers to make war upon them. About this time Thomas Paine published *Common Sense*—a pamphlet which urged many reasons why America should separate from England. The fact that war already existed had weakened the bond of union, and Paine's arguments led many to look with favor upon the idea of independence.

Virginia took a leading part by instructing her delegates in Congress to vote for independence. This action on the part of Virginia had its due influence upon the other colonies. The Stamp Act, the Boston Port Bill, and the other unpopular measures of the King and Parliament had drawn the colonies much closer together. They were beginning not only to realize the value of united action but to have a feeling of self-confidence leading to a desire for independence. On June 7 Richard Henry Lee, of Virginia, introduced a resolution "that these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent states."[2] This resolution was seconded by John Adams of Massachusetts. Thus did the leading colonies, Massachusetts and Virginia, join hands in this most important step toward establishing the nation.



SAMUEL ADAMS.

Before July all the colonies except New York had declared themselves in favor of independence. In the meantime, the committee[1] which had been appointed to prepare the Declaration of Independence, made its report. This famous paper, written by Thomas Jefferson, was formally adopted in Independence Hall,[2] Philadelphia, July 4, 1776. Realizing how serious the occasion was, John Hancock said: "We must be unanimous; we must hang together." "Yes," said Franklin, with his ready wit, "we must all hang together, or else we shall all hang separately."

---

[1] The Hessians were so called because they came from Hesse-Cassel in Germany. Thirty thousand Hessians were hired during the war, 18,000 of whom were engaged the first year. Twelve thousand lost their lives during the war. The cost to the king was $22,000,000. The English government was driven to hire Hessian troops because (at this time) the war was so unpopular in England that it was not easy to secure English volunteers to fight in America.

[2] The colonies, with the approval of Congress, began to form State governments in 1775. The change from a colonial to a State form of government was slight. In Connecticut and Rhode Island, where the people had been governing themselves by electing their own representatives, the only change necessary was to withdraw allegiance from the king.

Adoption of the Declaration of Independence, July 4, 1776.

INDEPENDENCE HALL, PHILADELPHIA, PA. CHESTNUT STREET FRONT.

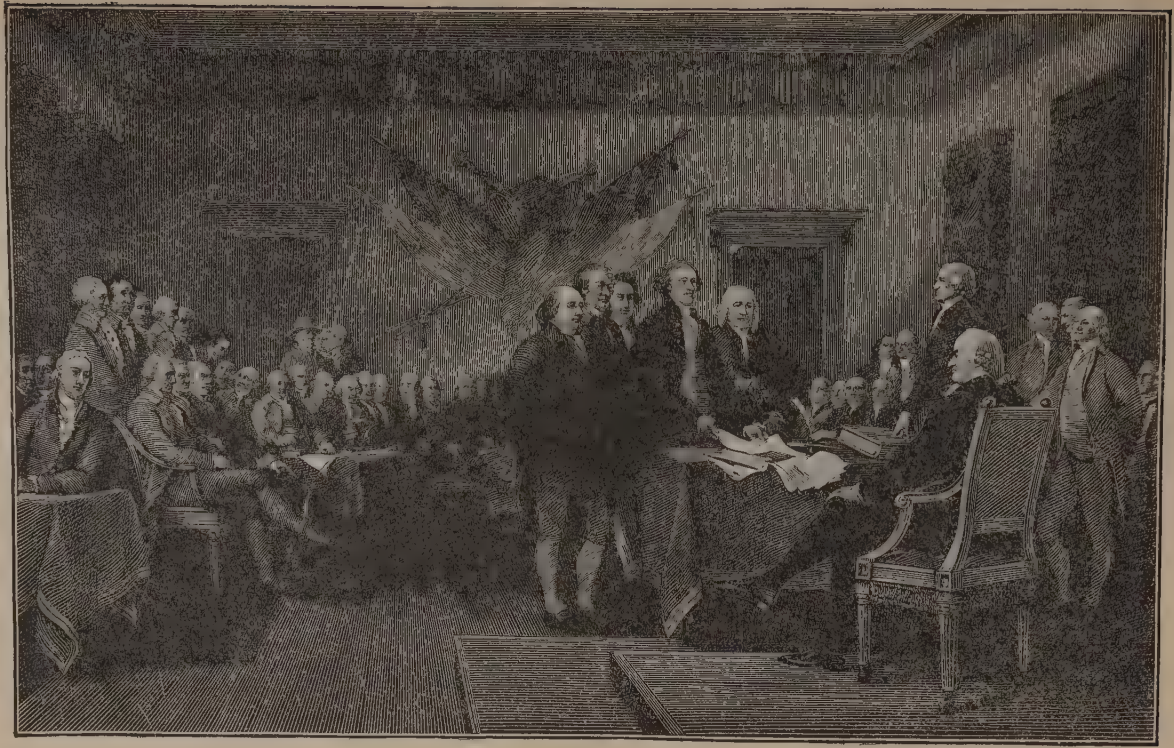
135. The British Direct their Attention to the Middle States and the Hudson River.—The British[3] had failed in

---

[1] The committee consisted of Thomas Jefferson, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, Roger Sherman, and Robert R. Livingston.

[2] This building is still standing on Chestnut Street.

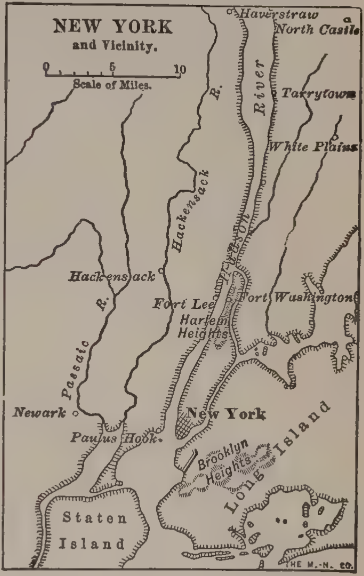
[3] On June 28th the British fleet attacked Fort Moultrie, in Charleston Harbor, South Carolina. Colonel Moultrie commanded the fort. His men returned the British fire with a precision which was surprising in untried gunners. The fleet retired, and South Carolina and Georgia were safe for three years.



SIGNING THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE.

their attempts to crush the Revolution in New England. They had found the opposition there so stubborn that they had been driven out of Boston. Their next move was to try to get control of the Hudson River and the Middle States. There were several reasons why this movement attracted the British. In this region, on account of the mixed character of the population, the people were not so united and earnest in their desire for independence as in New England. A large part of the inhabitants were Tories,[1] whose influence, it was thought, would be of much service to the British. The Hudson River was of great military importance, because, along with Lakes George and Champlain, it made a natural highway[2] between New York and Canada. If the British could secure this river, they could cut off New England from the other States. British forces concentrated in New England would soon conquer it, and they would then make short work of the rest of America. In a word, British control of the Hudson meant certain defeat for the Americans.

Reasons why the English wished to secure the Hudson River and the Middle States.



136. Washington's Plan of Defending New York: Battle of Long Island (August 27).—When the British evacuated Boston, Washington supposed that their next point of attack would be New York. He therefore proceeded to make ready its defences. Not knowing at what point the attack would be made, he found it necessary to prepare for the defence of a line of twenty miles. Just above New York he built Forts Lee and Washington, on opposite sides of the Hudson. He also fortified Brooklyn Heights and sent Putnam with half the army to occupy them.

---

[1] Everywhere in America Tory sentiment was strongest among the non-English elements of the people.

[2] Water routes were especially valuable then, because there were no railroads for the transportation of armies and military supplies.

In the summer General Howe arrived at Staten Island with a powerful fleet and an army of about 30,000 men. Washington had only about 18,000. On August 27 Howe landed on Long Island and attacked a detachment of the Americans under Sullivan, whose forces were outnumbered four or five to one. The battle was brief and one-sided. The Americans were defeated and driven back behind their intrenchments on Brooklyn Heights. If Howe had followed up his victory he might have captured the American army and brought the war to a speedy end, but as usual he was too slow. Two days later Washington, perceiving that the British fleet was moving to cut him off from New York, secured all the boats he could find, and with the aid of a heavy fog escaped during the night with all his force.[1]

Washington escapes from Long Island.

137. Washington's Retreat from New York and Across New Jersey.—Brooklyn Heights overlooked New York just as Bunker Hill or Dorchester Heights overlooked Boston. As soon, therefore, as the British got possession of Brooklyn Heights, Washington saw that his army could not long remain in New York.[2] A little later

---

[1] It is surprising that Washington could, in a single night, succeed in getting an army of 10,000 men across a river, at this point nearly a mile wide, without being discovered. It was a brilliant piece of work, which none but an able general could have achieved. Here, as at Dorchester Heights, the slow-witted Howe was outgeneralled.

[2] During the interval of about two weeks between the retreat from Long Island and the evacuation of New York, the sad episode of Nathan Hale's capture and execution occurred. Captain Nathan Hale, who was only twenty-one years of age, was quite willing to risk his life by going as a spy into Howe's camp on Long Island. Hale succeeded in getting much valuable information about the enemy's fortifications, and was on his way back to the American army when he was captured and taken before General Howe. The latter promptly ordered him to be hanged on the next (Sunday) morning. During the night Hale asked for a clergyman and

THE JUMEL MANSION, NEW YORK CITY, WASHINGTON'S HEADQUARTERS.

The British capture Forts Lee and Washington.

Howe, with the aid of his fleet, tried to prevent Washington's escape by cutting off his retreat, but Washington was too alert for him. After more or less fighting near the Hudson River, north of New York, Washington left General Charles Lee with one-half the army at North Castle while he crossed over to New Jersey. The British captured Forts Lee and Washington and 3,000 men. This was a terrible loss at a time when everything seemed to be going against the American cause.

Lee's disobedience and jealousy.

But even worse things were to follow. In order to prevent the British from carrying out their plan of taking Philadelphia, Washington put his troops between that city and the British army. Needing every available soldier, he sent Lee orders to join him. Lee did not move. Again and again Washington urged upon Lee the importance of joining their forces, but he re-

a Bible. Both were denied him. He wrote to his mother and to his betrothed, but the letters were torn in pieces before his eyes by the hard-hearted jailer. The last words of the martyr-spy bore witness to his brave spirit: "I only regret that I have but one life to lose for my country."

mained at North Castle. He was jealous of Washington, and, being second in command, he wished Washington to fail in order that he himself, by promotion, might become commander-in-chief. This disobedience and jealousy put Washington in a critical position.

To save his army from capture he was again forced to retreat—this time across New Jersey. On his line of march he broke down bridges and destroyed supplies which the British hoped to secure for their army. Often the rear-guard was just leaving a burning bridge when the advance of the British could be seen approaching. Washington's retreat was so skilful that the British spent nineteen days (November 19 to December 8) in marching a little over sixty miles. But his losses by desertion were great and his army seemed to be melting away. When he reached the Delaware River he had only about 3,000 soldiers. Having previously sent on men to secure the boats for nearly one hundred miles along the river, he got his little army across just in time to escape the British, who arrived on the evening of the same day.

Washington's army melting away.

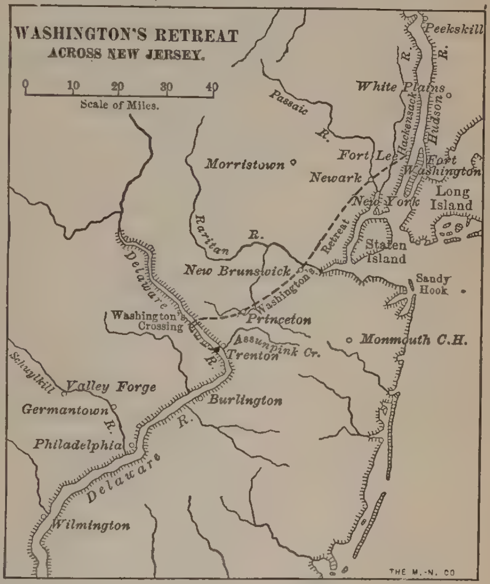
138. Battle of Trenton.—These were indeed "dark and dismal" days. In the retreat across New Jersey the Americans suffered greatly. Many were without shoes and they could be tracked by crimson foot-prints upon the snow. The friends of the patriot cause, both in England and in America, thought the Americans hopelessly beaten. There was doubt and gloom everywhere. The British generals thought the war was near its close, and Cornwallis was packing up to return to England; for as soon as the Delaware should become frozen over the British intended to march across and seize Philadelphia, the "rebel" capital. It would then be useless for him to remain longer in America.

Dark outlook of the American cause.

But Washington was not without hope. He noted with satisfaction the mistake the British were making in carelessly separating their army into several divisions and scattering them at various points in New Jersey. In the meantime Charles Lee had been

Washington's plans.

captured. His troops, now under Sullivan, had joined Washington, so that the entire army numbered 6,000. Washington at once planned to attack the body of Hessians stationed at Trenton.



The attack was made on Christmas night with 2,400 picked men. They began crossing the river early in the evening. Great blocks of ice, floating down the swift current, made the crossing slow and difficult. Massachusetts fishermen skilfully directed the boats, but it was four o'clock in the morning before the soldiers were ready to take up their line of march. A furious storm of snow and sleet beat in their faces as they plodded on toward Trenton, nine miles away. By daybreak they had completely surprised the Hessians and, after a brief struggle, had captured the whole force of more than 1,000 men. By one bold stroke Washington had changed defeat into victory and had inspired the patriot Americans with new hope.

A glorious victory at Trenton.

Cornwallis, filled with amazement, decided to remain a little longer in America. Leaving a rear-guard at Princeton to protect his supplies, he speedily advanced with a superior force against Washington. At nightfall January 2, 1777, only a small creek separated the two armies, just south of Trenton. "At last," said Cornwallis, "we have run down the old fox and we will bag him in the morning." But

Washington outgeneralled him. During the night he not only escaped, but marched around Cornwallis, defeated his rear-guard at Princeton, captured five hundred prisoners, and then withdrew in safety to the heights about Morristown, where he went into winter quarters.

Battle of Princeton.

139. Robert Morris Furnishes Money for the Army.— After the battle of Trenton Washington was in sore straits with his army. Many of the soldiers' terms of service were about to expire, and these men were eager to get to their homes. Washington knew that good money would hold them over for a few weeks. He wrote in haste therefore to his friend Robert Morris, a rich merchant and banker of Philadelphia, for $50,000 in hard cash. Morris promptly responded. Before light on New Year's morning he went knocking from door to door to secure the money from among his friends. By noon the sum was made up and on its way to Washington. The army was saved, and Washington was able to bring to an end a brilliantly executed campaign. Again during Greene's campaign in the Carolinas (1780) and during Washington's about Yorktown (1781), Morris came to the rescue of the army. His ample fortune was a silent power which none the less truly than the military genius of Washington made American independence possible.

Great need of money for the soldiers.

The noble task of Robert Morris.

TO THE PUPIL

1. Review the New England Confederacy, Franklin's Plan of Union, the Stamp Act Congress, and the Continental Congress. How do you account for the rapid growth of a desire on the part of the colonists for Independence? In this connection, find out all you can about the Hessians.
2. Explain the leading part taken by Virginia and Massachusetts in securing the adoption of the Declaration of Independence. Review Berkeley in Virginia and Andros in Massachusetts.
3. What were the Americans fighting for before the adoption of the Declaration of Independence? What, after it?

4. Why did the British wish to secure control of the Hudson River and the Middle States? Can you give any reason why the Tories were more numerous in this part of the country than in New England?
5. What plans did Washington make for the defence of New York?
6. Are you constantly using a map to aid you in forming vivid pictures?
7. What had Charles Lee to do with Washington's retreat across New Jersey? After chasing Washington across New Jersey, what mistake did the British make? How did Washington take advantage of this? You may well closely follow Washington at this time. What service did Robert Morris render the American cause?
8. Read the account of the battle of Trenton in Coffin's Boys of '76.

THE STRUGGLE FOR THE HUDSON RIVER AND THE MIDDLE STATES IN 1777

140. The British Plan to get Control of the Hudson in 1777.—By the capture of New York the British held the lower part of the Hudson. Their plan for 1777, like that for 1776, was to get entire control of this river. The plan was three-fold: (1) Burgoyne was to come down from Canada by way of Lake Champlain;[1] (2) St. Leger was to sail up the St. Lawrence into Lake Ontario and, landing at Oswego, was to come down the Mohawk Valley; (3) and Howe, with the main army, was to go up the Hudson from New York. All three of these divisions were to meet at Albany. The plan looks simple. It will be interesting to see how the blundering of the British led to failure.

141. Burgoyne's Brilliant Beginning.—Burgoyne, with an army of 10,000 men, including Canadians and Indians, captured Crown Point (June 26). Ten days later he forced the Americans to evacuate Fort Ticonderoga and hastily to retreat southward. Burgoyne was now confident of easy victory. King George clapped his hands and shouted, "I have beat them! I have beat all the Americans!" The English people thought the war would soon be over.

---

[1] In 1776 Carleton had led a similar expedition. With 12,000 troops he started from Canada to secure control of the water route to the mouth of the Hudson. Although stubbornly opposed by Arnold on Lake Champlain, he captured Crown Point, but finding Ticonderoga strongly fortified he withdrew without attacking that fort.

The Americans were everywhere disheartened. Four days more (July 10) found Burgoyne's army at Skenesboro (now Whitehall), about twenty miles distant in a direct line from Fort Edward.

142. Some of Burgoyne's Difficulties.--But in crossing the carrying-place between Lake Champlain and the Hudson serious difficulties stood in his way. The country was swampy and heavily wooded. General Schuyler, who was in command of the Americans, felled trees across the roads and destroyed over forty bridges. These obstructions greatly delayed Burgoyne. The British advanced only about a mile a day until they reached Fort Edward (July 30). As Burgoyne's supplies had to be sent to him from Canada, the farther he advanced the more difficult it was to feed his army. To keep his line of communication guarded it was necessary to leave troops in his rear. Every mile of advance thus compelled him to weaken his attacking force.

143. Burgoyne's Indian Allies.—Burgoyne's Indian allies were a source of more weakness than strength to his army. They murdered and scalped peaceful inhabitants every day.[1] These barbarous cruelties aroused the hottest indignation among the people, hundreds of whom eagerly offered their services to the American commander.

144. Bennington and Supplies.—While encamped at Fort Edward in August, Burgoyne's army stood greatly in need of horses and supplies. News came that at Bennington, a little village in Vermont at the foot of the Green Mountains, the Americans had collected several hundred horses, as well as food supplies and ammunition. Burgoyne was as much in need of horses to draw his cannon as of food to feed his troops. Besides, he was told that there were many Tories in the Green Mountains who would, with a little encouragement, flock to the British army. To win over the people to the British cause was no small part of the purpose of the expedition to Bennington.

---

[1] Near Fort Edward they killed Jane McCrea, a fascinating young woman who was engaged to be married to David Jones, an American loyalist serving as lieutenant in Burgoyne's army. Jones, having prevailed upon Miss McCrea to come within the British lines and marry him, sent a party of Indians under the half-breed Duluth to act as her guard. She was staying at the house of Mrs. McNeil, only a few hundred yards from Fort Edward. Before Duluth's party could reach Mrs. McNeil's house, however, another party of Indians under the Wyandotte Panther arrived and carried off Miss McCrea. Both parties of Indians met at a spring between Fort Edward and Glens Falls, and Duluth declared his right to take charge of the young lady. In the heated dispute which followed the Panther shot dead the unfortunate Miss McCrea. This is the version of the McCrea story as told by W. L. Stone in the "Cyclopædia of American Biography."

Burgoyne's need of supplies.

Accordingly, about 1,000 Hessians were sent to Bennington, where nearly all of them were killed or captured by a body of militia under Colonel John Stark. Burgoyne's army was badly crippled by this disaster. Instead of bringing recruits to the British the expedition to Bennington only served to make the feeling of the Green Mountain farmers more bitter against the English Government. Great numbers of them speedily hastened to join the American army.

Results of the British defeat at Bennington.

JOHN BURGOYNE.

145. Failure of St. Leger.—Fortune seemed to be against Burgoyne. St. Leger, it was hoped, would gather about his standard many of the Iroquois, or Six Nations, and large numbers of Tories in western and central New York. In due time he made his way to Oswego, and from there to Fort Stanwix. St. Leger laid siege to the fort. Arnold, with a body of troops, pressed forward to its relief. He sent a messenger ahead to report that a large force would soon attack the British. Panic-stricken, the Indians at once hurried away and were soon followed by St. Leger himself (August 22). Burgoyne could no longer look for aid in this direction. His only remaining hope was in receiving reinforcements from Howe.

St. Leger's hurried retreat.

Where Howe was and what his army was doing we will now consider.

146. Why Howe Failed to Unite with Burgoyne.—If Howe had gone up the Hudson and joined Burgoyne at the time planned, the latter's invasion would no doubt have been successful. Why Howe did not do the part assigned him was a question that until eighty years afterward had no satisfactory answer. An explanation was then found in a document in Charles Lee's handwriting that proved him beyond a doubt to be a traitor. Lee had been captured in the autumn of 1776. While yet uncertain of his fate, he told Howe that he had given up the American cause and offered his advice for the summer campaign. Lee believed it was more important to capture Philadelphia than to get control of the Hudson. Hence he advised sending a force to take that city, which the British general called the "rebel capital." Howe might thus speedily bring Pennsylvania under subjection to England, while Burgoyne and St. Leger would easily subdue New York. To his own confusion and to the confusion of the British cause Howe followed Lee's advice.

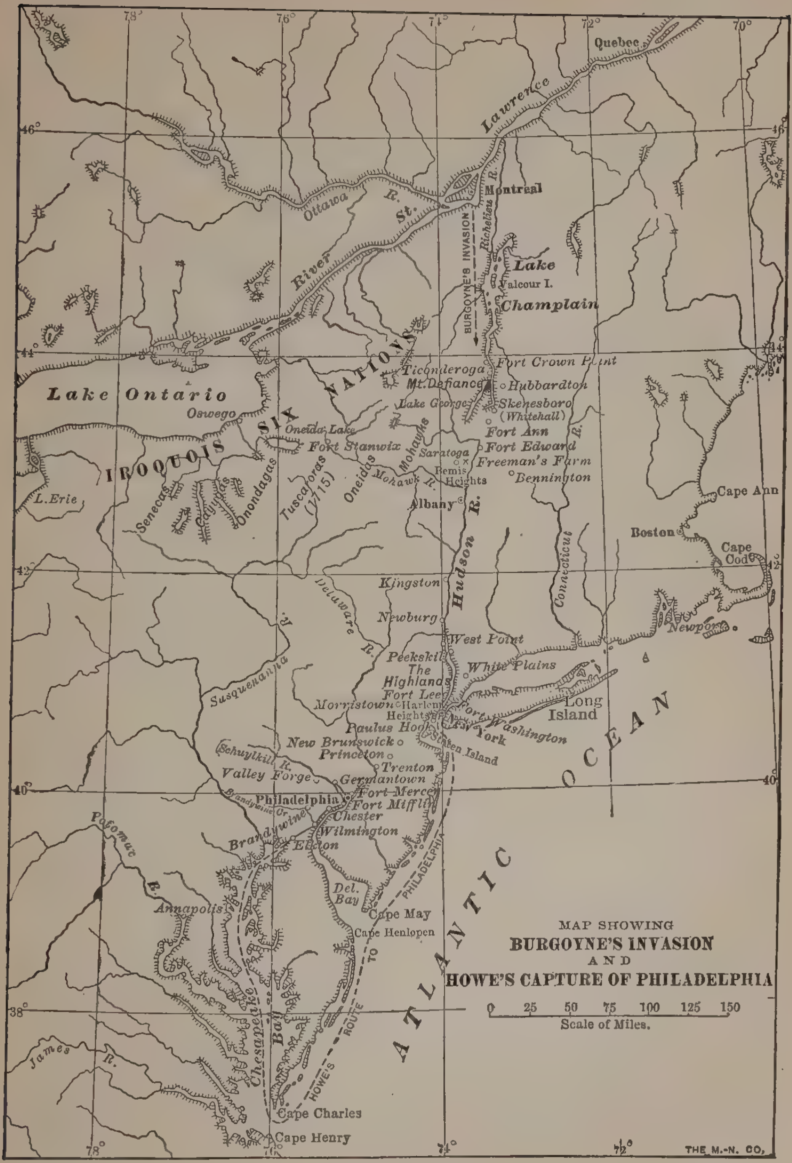
The traitor Lee.

Lee's advice to Howe.

LAFAYETTE.

147. Howe's Advance Toward Philadelphia.—Howe opened the campaign (June 12) by an effort to draw Washington from his strong position among the hills around Morristown into a general engagement. But Washington was too wary to allow himself to be caught napping. After spending two or three weeks in vain attempts to provoke Washington to come out from his strongholds and fight in the open field Howe withdrew, tired out with his fruitless manœuvres.

Howe's vain attempt to bring on a battle.

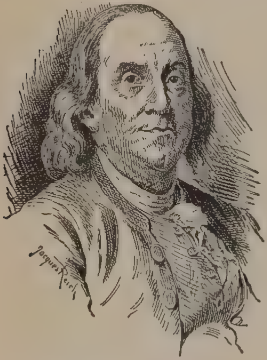


MAP SHOWING
BURGOYNE'S INVASION
AND
HOWE'S CAPTURE OF PHILADELPHIA

Even though Howe's army numbered 18,000 men he dared not risk a march across New Jersey with Washington and an army of 8,000 in his rear. So on the last day of June he gave up his plan of marching across New Jersey to Philadelphia and withdrew his army to Staten Island.

He sails to Elkton.

He then sailed southward in order to reach Philadelphia by way of the Chesapeake. When he reached Elkton, the head of the Chesapeake (August 25), he had been two months on the way. It was a precious two months to the American cause, as we shall now see.



BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

148. Battle of the Brandywine.[1]—Howe had no sooner landed, than he found his watchful foe ready to dispute his advance upon Philadelphia. Washington decided to make a stand at Brandywine Creek, where he met Howe in battle (September 11). The British greatly outnumbered the Americans and defeated them.[2]

Washington's skilful retreat.

But Washington withdrew in good order and handled his troops with such skill as to keep Howe two weeks in marching to Philadelphia, only twenty-six miles from the battle-field.

---

[1] When La Fayette heard that the Americans had declared their independence of England he was eager to cross the Atlantic and aid them. He was not yet twenty years of age and had just married a beautiful young woman of rank and fortune. But he was willing to leave behind him wife, family, and friends to fight in a noble cause. Accordingly, he sailed in his own vessel for this country and reached the coast of South Carolina in April, 1777.

Congress made him major-general in the Continental army, where he rendered excellent service. He fought his first battle at Brandywine, and here was wounded in the leg. He freely spent his own money for clothing and equipping the soldiers under his command. From their first meeting a warm friendship sprang up between La Fayette and Washington. After the war was over La Fayette twice visited the United States. The first visit he made in 1784 on Washington's invitation; the second, in 1824, when he laid the corner stone of Bunker Hill monument on the spot where the brave Warren had fallen in 1775.

[2] Washington had weakened his army by sending picked troops to aid the Army of the North.

It was on September 26 when the British general marched into this city, a week after the first battle of Saratoga, and altogether too late to send troops to co-operate with the unfortunate Burgoyne three hundred miles away. In delaying Howe Washington had made Burgoyne's capture certain. People did not understand the meaning of Washington's masterful strategy, but his policy of delaying Howe had been fatal to the success of the British plan to secure control of the Hudson.

149. Burgoyne's Surrender.—While Howe was on his way to Philadelphia Burgoyne was passing through a trying experience in the North. On sailing away from New York Howe left Clinton in command there. In vain Burgoyne sent messenger after messenger to Clinton, asking for reinforcements. Without Clinton's aid success was very doubtful, for the Americans were increasing daily and were threatening to cut off Burgoyne's line of communication with Canada. The American army, now commanded by Gates,[1] occupied a strong position at Bemis Heights. The situation was desperate. Burgoyne must force an advance. With great courage he fought a battle (September 19), in which his advance was stubbornly contested. Still there was no news from Clinton. In the meantime, Lincoln had succeeded in cutting off the British supplies from Canada. Three weeks later Burgoyne, whose army was suffering from want of food, again attacked the Americans (October 7) with the hope of cutting his way through their lines, and again suffered defeat. He tried in vain to find a way of escape but could not, for he was surrounded and cut off from supplies. After ten days, therefore, he

Burgoyne's situation desperate.

---

[1] Schuyler was a noble man and a good general, but he had political enemies who succeeded in having him removed. Gates was vain and weak, and his subsequent history proved him to be lacking even in personal bravery. The success of his army at Saratoga was due to the gallant leadership of Arnold and Morgan. Gates deserved no credit. His easy manner and fluent tongue enabled him for a time to influence people who did not understand his real character. In time, however, his selfishness, trickery, and cowardice brought down upon him the contempt of honest men.

surrendered his entire army of 6,000 regular troops[1] (October 17).

150. Burgoyne's Surrender Leads to Aid from France.—The surrender of Burgoyne was the turning-point in the war. Its immediate result was a treaty of alliance between France and our country. Shortly after the Declaration of Independence was signed Congress sent over three commissioners[2] to secure aid from France. The principal one of these was Benjamin Franklin, then seventy years old. His simplicity and directness charmed the French people and won him a warm place in their hearts. Before Burgoyne's invasion France had secretly sent to the Americans much aid in the form of money and ship-loads of ammunition and clothing.

Franklin's influence secures secret aid from France.

But after Burgoyne's surrender it was evident that the Americans were fighting England with success. France, England's traditional enemy, was then ready to aid them openly. She therefore entered into a treaty of alliance with the United States, agreeing to send over a fleet and an army of 4,000 men. England promptly declared war against France. She also changed her policy toward the Americans. She repealed the tea duty, the Boston Port Bill, and all the other hated measures that had driven the colonies to take up arms against the king. She promised that there should be no more taxation without representation. But it was too late. The Americans would now agree to nothing short of independence.

Results of the American treaty with France.

151. The Suffering at Valley Forge.—Even after losing Philadelphia, Washington had the courage to attack the British at Germantown. Although he made a well-planned attack, on account of a fog he suffered defeat. He then

---

[1] The Americans when marching the English soldiers off the field of surrender proudly unfurled their new flag. In January, 1776, Washington began to use an American flag. This was like the British flag, except that the thirteen stripes in the American flag took the place of the solid red of the British. Congress adopted the "Stars and Stripes" on June 14, 1777. John Paul Jones is believed to have been the first to hoist the flag at sea.

[2] These commissioners were Benjamin Franklin, Arthur Lee, and Silas Deane.

THE ATTACK ON THE CHEW HOUSE, GERMANTOWN.

withdrew his army and went into winter quarters at Valley Forge. This was a strong position among the hills, about twenty miles northwest of Philadelphia, on the Schuylkill River. But the winter was a terrible one for the army.[1] Most of the soldiers were in rags, few had any bedding, and many had not even straw to lie upon at night. Nearly 3,000 were barefoot, and could be tracked by their bloody footprints upon the frozen ground. Owing to mismanagement by Congress and the commissary department, there was often, for days at a time, no bread.

The army, though weakened by suffering and loss of food, was greatly strengthened by the systematic military drill which they received from Steuben,[2] a Prussian veteran who had joined the American cause. He was made inspector-general, and he transformed the ragged regiments into a well-disciplined army.

Washington's enemies and their petty scheming.

152. The Conway Cabal.—Petty politics and personal jealousy in Congress did much at this time and at other times to prevent the successful handling of the troops by Washington. Weak and vain men, such as Gates and Charles Lee, did all they could to destroy Washington's influence and drive him from his position as commander-in-chief. As Gates had succeeded, by his political scheming, in getting Congress to appoint him, in place of Schuyler, as head of the Northern army in 1777, so now he was busily scheming for the downfall of Washington that he might himself become the head of all the American armies. As one of the leaders in this shameful plot was Conway, it was called the Conway Cabal. The taunt was openly made that while Gates had captured Burgoyne at Saratoga, Washington had been defeated by Howe on the Brandywine. But when people understood the meanness of all this plotting they were indignant. Washington appeared all the more noble in contrast with these selfish men, and his popularity was even greater than before.

---

[1] A beautiful story is told of Washington at Valley Forge. When "Friend Potts" was near the camp one day he heard an earnest voice. On approaching he saw Washington on his knees, his cheeks wet with tears, praying to God for help and guidance. When the farmer returned to his home he said to his wife: "George Washington will succeed! George Washington will succeed! The Americans will secure their independence!" "What makes thee think so, Isaac?" inquired his wife. "I have heard him pray, Hannah, out in the woods to-day, and the Lord will surely hear his prayer. He will, Hannah; thee may rest assured He will."

[2] There were five eminent foreign gentlemen who fought in the American army. Two of these, La Fayette and John Kalb, were Frenchmen; two others, Kosciusko and Pulaski, were Poles; and the fifth was Baron Steuben, a German. These brave officers won the lasting gratitude of patriot Americans.

153. The British Evacuate Philadelphia (June 18, 1778). When the British learned that a French fleet was coming over to aid the Americans, they feared it might go up the Delaware and, co-operating with Washington, capture their troops in Philadelphia. So Clinton, who had succeeded Howe in the chief command, was at once ordered to hasten away from Philadelphia and reinforce the army in New York. With 17,000 men, the British general began his march across New Jersey. Washington started in pursuit of Clinton, overtook him at Monmouth, and attacked him there (June 28). But, owing to the treachery of Charles Lee,[1] Washington failed to win a decisive victory. During the night the British hurried from the battle-field on toward New York.

Battle of Monmouth.

TO THE PUPIL

1. **First review the reasons why the British wished to get control of the Hudson River and the Middle States. What was the British plan for 1777?**
2. **Describe Burgoyne's brilliant beginning and his later difficulties. In what way did his Indian allies affect the invasion?**
3. **What were the purposes and the results of the expedition against Bennington? Explain the failure of St. Leger.**
4. **Why did not Howe sail up the Hudson to join Burgoyne? In what way did Charles Lee show himself to be a traitor to the American cause? What was his advice to Howe?**
5. **Why did not Howe march across New Jersey in his attempt to capture Philadelphia? Trace his route by water to Elkton. In what way did Howe waste valuable time?**

---

[1] For his shameful retreat and disobedience of orders Lee was tried by court-martial. He was suspended from his command for one year. Later he was expelled from the army.

6. How did Washington aid the Northern army to capture Burgoyne?
7. Give reasons for Burgoyne's failure.
8. What were the most important results of his surrender? How had France aided us before this surrender? After France entered into a treaty of alliance with the Americans what change did England make in her policy toward them?
9. Be prepared to write five minutes on any of the following topics: The suffering at Valley Forge, the Conway cabal, the British evacuate Philadelphia. Contrast Washington with such men as Lee and Gates.
10. Imagine yourself to have been with Washington's army at Valley Forge in that trying winter and write an account of your personal experiences.
11. Read Scudder's George Washington.

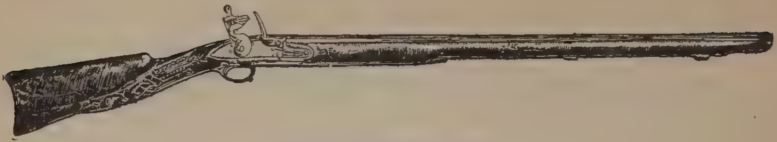
WARFARE ON THE BORDER AND ON THE SEA

154. England's Numerous Wars.—England's war with France made it necessary for her to protect her colonies in various parts of the world. This prevented her from concentrating her forces in America. Within the next two years she also became implicated in war with Spain and Holland; hence we need not be surprised that the English did but little fighting in America during 1778 and 1779.

155. Weakness and Difficulties of the Americans.—The United States was equally unable to engage in extensive military operations. The country was very weak in point of wealth and population. The principal industries were farming, fishing, ship-building, and commerce, and these, especially the last three, had naturally been much interfered with by the war. The Continental Congress had but little authority, and steadily lost influence until it commanded but little respect. It could not enlist a soldier or build a fort, because it had no power to levy taxes. In course of time the States paid little heed to the requisitions for money which Congress made upon them. Under such circumstances Congress had great difficulty in raising money enough to carry on the war.

The Continental Congress has little power.

Although Congress had no money and no means of get-

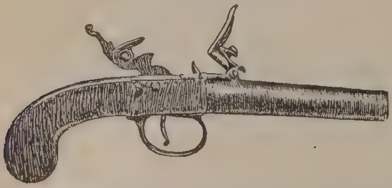


A REVOLUTIONARY GUN.

Continental currency.

ting any, it could issue paper promises, and this it did in immense quantities. These paper promises were called Continental currency, and, like all such promises, they were valuable only in so far as people had confidence in the ability of the government to redeem them. As people lost respect for Congress, this paper currency fell in value. Before the close of 1779 the coin value of this Continental currency was only two cents on the dollar, and in the early part of the following year its coin value was nothing at all. "Not worth a Continental" recalls the money trials of the Revolution.

156. Use of Indians by the English.—The difficulties of the situation were enhanced by the hostility of the original owners of the soil. We have seen how Burgoyne employed Indians to help him. It was a part of the plan of the English to get all the aid they could from the Iroquois in New York and from the Indians west of the Alleghanies. These powerful tribes, furnished with arms, ammunition, provisions, and sometimes with British leaders, were a serious annoyance to the people on the frontier.



A REVOLUTIONARY FLINT-LOCK PISTOL.

Importance of the struggle between backwoodsmen and the Indians.

The struggle between the backwoodsmen and the red men was of great importance. The English Government wished to coop up the Americans between the Alleghanies and the Atlantic. For, as long as the western country remained unsettled, English merchants could continue to grow rich on the immensely profitable fur trade with the Indians. The

Americans were eager to make settlements west of the Alleghanies, but before they could occupy the land they had to conquer the Indians. Daniel Boone, George Rogers Clark, John Sevier, and James Robertson were prominent leaders in this western movement for conquest. The struggle east of the Alleghanies was for independence in territory already acquired; the struggle west of the Alleghanies was for the conquest of new territory.

157. George Rogers Clark Marches Against the British Posts North of the Ohio.—When the war began the British had possession of all the territory north of the Ohio between the Mississippi and the Alleghanies. Colonel Hamilton, the English governor of that region, wished to drive out all the American settlers. He encouraged the Indians to roam over the country, burning, murdering, and scalping without mercy.

Hamilton's plans.

Colonel George Rogers Clark, a backwoodsman of Kentucky, which was then a part of Virginia, decided to put a check upon Hamilton's plans. Clark got together a small body of volunteers, who numbered less than two hundred, and with these he boldly set out to capture the British posts north of the Ohio. In May, 1778, Clark's men made rude flat boats and rafts and floated down the Ohio to a point south of the Tennessee River. Here they met a party of hunters who consented to act as guides overland to Kaskaskia in the southwestern part of Illinois. Having surprised and captured this post, Clark sent a small force to seize Cahokia (Illinois), from thirty to forty miles northwest of Kaskaskia. This expedition was successful, and a message was received about the same time that Vincennes had taken the oath of allegiance to America and that the American flag floated over the fort there.

Clark's expedition.

158. Clark Secures Control of the Northwest.—Hearing of Clark's success, Hamilton, who was at Detroit, at once prepared to march against him. As soon as possible the expedition started from Detroit toward Vincennes. In four or five weeks Hamilton captured Vincennes and threatened to advance upon Clark.

Hamilton marches against Clark.

When the news reached the Illinois towns there was great alarm. Clark's situation was now critical. With scarcely more than one hundred men he was too far away to secure reinforcements from Virginia. Hamilton had five hundred men, including Indians, and could easily get reinforcements from his red friends.

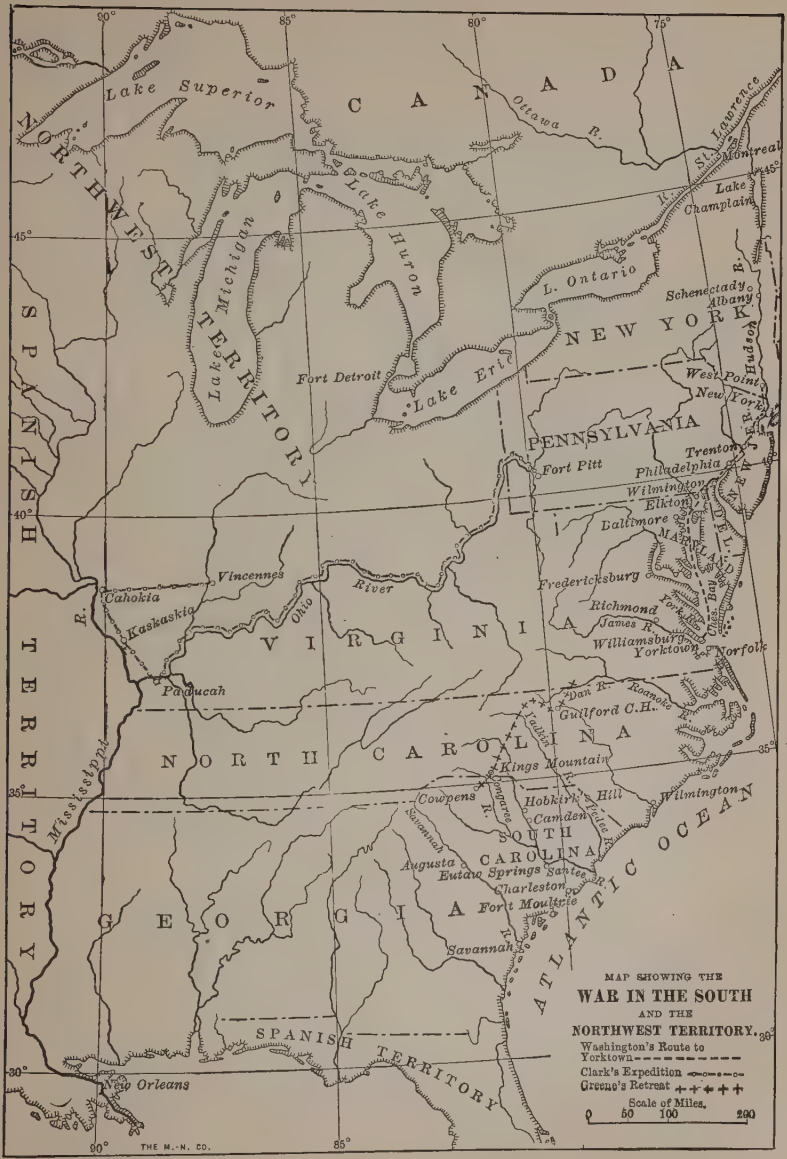
In the midst of the excitement Clark got news that Hamilton had postponed further operations for the winter, and was holding Vincennes with only eighty men in the garrison. Although it was midwinter, Clark promptly decided to march across the country and attack Hamilton at Vincennes, two hundred and forty miles away. He started from Kaskaskia (February 7, 1779). It was a fearful march of sixteen days, five of them spent in wading over the drowned lands of the Wabash.

CLARK ON THE WAY TO KASKASKIA.

Clark's expedition to Vincennes.

The water was often three or four feet deep and sometimes reached the men's chins. The weather was bitterly cold. During the last six days of the march the men, drenched and half-frozen, had no regular meals, and were wholly without food for two days. But Clark pressed steadily forward. On reaching Vincennes he attacked the fort with such vigor that he forced Hamilton to surrender (February 24, 1779). He had done a heroic piece of work. In capturing Vincennes Clark and his brave backwoodsmen finished the conquest of the territory in the Northwest and opened all this vast region to American settlers. The importance of this conquest will be appreciated when we see its ef-

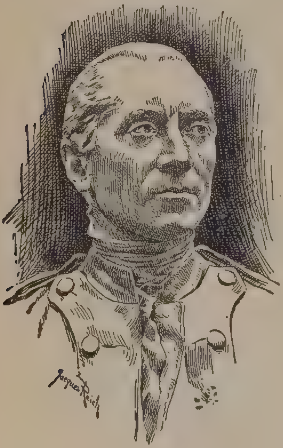
Clark's heroic work.



MAP SHOWING THE
WAR IN THE SOUTH
AND THE
NORTHWEST TERRITORY.

fects upon the treaty of peace at the close of the Revolution.

159. The American Navy.—Up to this time all the fighting, so far as we have seen, had been on land, but there was serious trouble on the sea also. When the war began the Americans were without war vessels, because up to this time they had been under the protection of England. Before the close of 1775, however, Congress had ordered a small navy of thirteen vessels to be built, nearly all of which were captured during the war or burned to avoid capture. As a consequence we were much crippled for means of transporting troops by water. After recognizing our independence (1778), France made several attempts to aid us with her strong fleets, but owing to the supremacy of the English navy these efforts were of little service before the siege of Yorktown. Indirectly, however, they were of great assistance, because they kept England busy on various parts of the sea and in this way withdrew her strength from America.


JOHN PAUL JONES.

France aids us with her fleets.

160. American Privateering.—While England had little to fear from our navy, she suffered much from American privateers. Even as early as 1776 they captured three hundred and fifty English vessels, a few of which were loaded with powder and supplies for the British army. So much damage did they inflict upon England's commerce that her ship-owners and merchants became bitter in their opposition to the war. Governor Hutchinson of Massachusetts said there were 70,000[1] New England sailors at one time on privateers. The estimate was too high, but without doubt many more than this number of Americans engaged in privateering during the war.

---

[1] There were two reasons why it was easier to get men to engage in privateering than to enlist in the army: (1) Most of the men on these privateers were fishermen

161. Paul Jones and the American Navy.—John Paul Jones, the naval hero of the Revolution, was a Scotchman by birth. At an early age he emigrated to America, and had been engaged in commerce many years before the outbreak of the war. Being placed by Congress in command of a small ship, he captured many vessels in the English Channel and thoroughly frightened the people as he sailed along the coasts of England and Scotland threatening the towns. At length, through the help of Franklin and the French king, he was placed in command of a small squadron. His flag-ship was called the *Bonhomme Richard*. Sailing along the eastern coast of England he saw several English merchantmen convoyed by two men-of-war. At seven o'clock in the evening (September 23, 1779), his ship attacked the larger of the two, the *Serapis*. A desperate fight followed. During the action the firing on the *Richard* slacked. The English commander shouted to Jones, "Have you struck?" Jones promptly answered, "I have not begun to fight." The two vessels coming in touch, he lashed them together with his own hands and for two hours longer continued the deadly struggle. At last some of Jones's men, from the main-yard of the *Richard*, dropped hand-grenades among the English sailors. One of

THE *BONHOMME RICHARD* AND THE *SERAPIS.*

Desperate fight between the "Bonhomme Richard" and the "Serapis."

---

and sailors who, as we have already found, were thrown out of employment by English cruisers; (2) privateering was far more profitable than service in an ill-paid army.

these caused an explosion of a powder chest. This demoralized the English crew, and their commander struck his colors. Jones had lost in killed and wounded one hundred and sixteen men, and the *Richard* was sinking. It was a tremendous struggle and a great victory, and it caused the name of John Paul Jones to be spoken of with gratitude throughout America.

TO THE PUPIL

1. In what part of the country was most of the fighting in 1775? In 1776 and 1777? Review the leading events of these three years.
2. Why was there little fighting in 1778 and 1779? Notice with care the weakness of the Continental Congress and the disastrous effects of the Continental currency.
3. How did the English make use of the Indians? Give reasons for the importance of the struggle between the backwoodsmen and the Indians in the region west of the Alleghanies.
4. What was the purpose of George Rogers Clark's expedition? Trace it on the map. What did Clark accomplish in the Northwest?
5. Imagine as vividly as you can his heroic expedition against Vincennes and write an account of it.
6. Why were the Americans without war vessels at the beginning of the war? How were they crippled for lack of a suitable navy during the Revolution? In what way did France aid them with her fleets?
7. Who was Paul Jones? What service did he render the Americans?
8. Read Roosevelt's Winning of the West for a good account of what the Westerners did during the Revolution.

WAR IN THE SOUTH AND THE SURRENDER OF CORNWALLIS (1780–1781)

162. Reasons Why the British Tried to Conquer the South.—After failing in New England and the Middle States, the British directed their energies to the South. Their plan was to conquer Georgia and then get control of the Carolinas and Virginia. They knew that Georgia, being weak, could not offer much resistance, and that the Tories, who were numerous in the Carolinas, would join them. Moreover, should England fail in overthrowing American independence, the control of the South would help her, at the close of the war, in confining the Americans within a smaller territory than would be otherwise possible.

163. First Successes of the British.—As we have seen, there was little fighting anywhere in America in 1778 and 1779. The British had captured Savannah in 1778, but it was not until the spring of 1780 that they began the serious work of conquering the South. General Lincoln was in command of the American army in the South and was stationed at Charleston. Clinton, coming down from New York with a large force, succeeded in penning him in this place and forcing his surrender (May 12), with about 3,000 Continental troops. Well satisfied with this beginning, Clinton returned to New York and left Cornwallis in command of the British forces in the South.

Lincoln surrenders to Clinton at Charleston.

After Lincoln's surrender at Charleston, Congress sent General Gates down to take command of the American troops. Gates, whose head had been turned by his capture of Burgoyne at Saratoga, went South confident of success. He reached the army on July 19 and at once planned to make an advance upon Camden. This was the most important place in South Carolina, because all the principal roads, leading from the North and from the coast, centred here. He was met by Cornwallis (August 16) and badly defeated. This was the second American army destroyed in the South within three months.

Defeat of Gates at Camden.

Gates rode off the battle-field in such confusion of mind that he did not stop until he was more than sixty miles from Camden. In utter disgrace he retired from the army, to be heard of no more during the war. As Gates was leaving his Virginia plantation to take command of the army in South Carolina, his friend Charles Lee had said to him, "Take care that your Northern laurels do not change to Southern willows." But Gates was bound to fail. He was too self-satisfied to listen to any advice, even that of his officers.

Gates in disgrace.

164. Battle of King's Mountain.—Cornwallis now advanced into North Carolina. At the same time he sent 1,200 men, mostly American Tories under the dashing Ferguson, to enlist Tories in the mountainous regions of South Carolina. Hearing of this movement, a body of American backwoodsmen hastily gathered and attacked Ferguson at King's Mountain (October 7) before he could receive reinforcements. His position was a strong one, but the backwoodsmen assailed him with great fury on three sides at once and killed or captured his entire force. Ferguson himself was killed.

This brilliant victory so severely crippled Cornwallis that it has sometimes been called the Bennington of the South. Cornwallis was compelled to return to South Carolina in order to maintain control of the territory in that State.

165. Partisan Warfare in the South.—Before returning to New York after the capture of Charleston, Clinton sent small forces into the interior of South Carolina, and in a proclamation offered pardon to all who would return to allegiance to England. Those who would not actively aid in restoring the royal government were to be treated as rebels and traitors. This unwise proclamation compelled all citizens to range themselves on one side or the other.

Clinton's unwise proclamation.

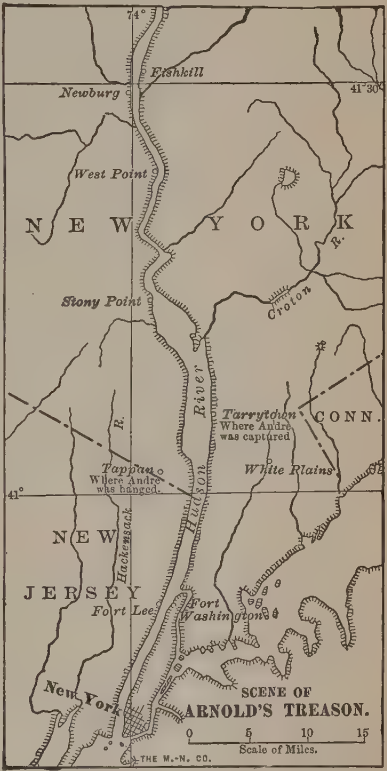
A bitter, bloody, and cruel partisan warfare resulted. Neighbor fought against neighbor, sometimes brother against brother, in this semi-civil war. The most noted partisan leaders on the American side were Marion, Sumter, Pickens, and Lee. Marion's men were without uniforms, without tents, and without pay. They lived in the swamps, and were so swift and cunning in their attacks that their leader was known as the Swamp Fox. With a very small force, often less than fifty men, he annoyed beyond measure the British by rescuing prisoners and capturing supply-trains, foraging parties, and outposts. When the American cause looked most gloomy in the South, these brave men, aided by noble women, kept hope alive in patriot hearts.

The Swamp Fox.

166. Arnold in Philadelphia.—Before we follow Greene and Cornwallis in their final struggle for control in the South, let us turn to an alarming event on the banks of the Hudson. This was Arnold's treason, which offered the British an opportunity to make a third attempt to get control of the Hudson. After the British left Philadelphia (1778) Arnold, who had not fully recovered from his wounds received at Saratoga, was placed in command there. He was popular in social circles, which included many Tories, and became engaged to a Tory's daughter. Extravagant living followed, and Arnold was soon heavily in debt.

Arnold tried by court-martial.

The State government accusing him of dishonesty, Congress ordered his trial by court-martial. By its verdict he was found guilty of indiscretions and mildly sentenced to receive a reprimand from the commander-in-chief. As Arnold had served his country with distinguished bravery, Washington held him in high esteem and therefore gave the reproof as gently as possible. But Arnold was indignant. He felt that he had been unjustly treated, and he secretly planned revenge.



SCENE OF ARNOLD'S TREASON.

167. Arnold Becomes a Traitor.—Arnold pretended that on account of his wound he was not able to engage in active service, and requested that he might be placed in command of the important position of West Point. Washington, suspecting nothing, granted Arnold's request. The latter, no doubt, thought the American cause was hopeless. At any rate he was as eager for money as he was for revenge and soon opened a treasonable correspondence with General Clinton, commanding the British troops in New York. The scheme was that Arnold should so dispose of his forces at West Point that this strong fort might easily fall into the British hands at a time agreed upon for an attack.

168. Arnold Fails, and André is Hanged as a Spy.— For weeks the correspondence between Arnold and the British commander was carried on. Arnold looked forward to a successful execution of his plot; but a few details were yet to be agreed upon. So, in September (1780), Major André was sent by Clinton up the Hudson to make final arrangements with Arnold.

THE ESCAPE OF BENEDICT ARNOLD.

The all-night interview.

André sailed up the river in the ship *Vulture* and met Arnold on shore near Stony Point. An all-night interview followed, and morning found the transaction still unfinished. Before André could return to the *Vulture* it was fired upon and withdrew down the river. André then attempted to make his way to the British lines by land. In disguise, therefore, and with Arnold's plans of the fort between his stockings and the soles of his feet, the next morning he was galloping rapidly down the east side of the Hudson on his way to New York. His safe arrival would secure him honor and fame.

André's capture.

Little did he know what fate awaited him. As he reached Tarrytown he was stopped by three militiamen lying in wait for any suspicious persons who might appear. They searched him and, finding the tell-tale papers, retained him as a prisoner. Arnold got the news of the capture in time to escape. André was tried by a fair-minded court-martial and was condemned to be hanged as a spy.

Arnold's disgrace and death.

Arnold received for his treason a brigadiership and about $30,000, but he spent the remainder of his life in disgrace, justly despised by Americans and Englishmen alike. He had carefully kept in his possession the old uniform in which he made his escape from West Point. Just before his death he called for this and put it on once more. " Let me die," said he, " in this old uniform in which I fought my battles. May God forgive me for ever putting on any other."

Greene's difficulties.

169. Greene and Cornwallis.—In the meantime the struggle between Greene and Cornwallis in the South was going on. When Gates retired from the command of the armies of the South, General Greene was appointed by Congress to succeed him. On reaching the Carolinas (December 2, 1780) Greene had many difficulties to face. The British, now in control of Georgia and South Carolina, were about to overrun North Carolina also. Their army was in good condition and was led by such able officers as Cornwallis, Tarleton, and Rawdon. Greene's small forces were poorly armed, without pay and clothing, and sometimes even without food. The troops were broken in spirit and discouraged, but Greene soon inspired the confidence of officers and soldiers.

He sent the brave General Morgan against Tarleton. They met at Cowpens (January 17, 1781), where Morgan, with only nine hundred men, routed the British force of

1,100 picked men. The British loss was two hundred and thirty killed and wounded and six hundred prisoners. This brilliant victory destroyed nearly one-third of Cornwallis's army and, like the victory at King's Mountain, seriously interfered with his plans. At King's Mountain Cornwallis lost his best corps of scouts; at Cowpens he lost his light infantry. Both would have been of untold benefit to him when chasing Greene into Virginia immediately after this battle.

Morgan's brilliant victory at Cowpens.

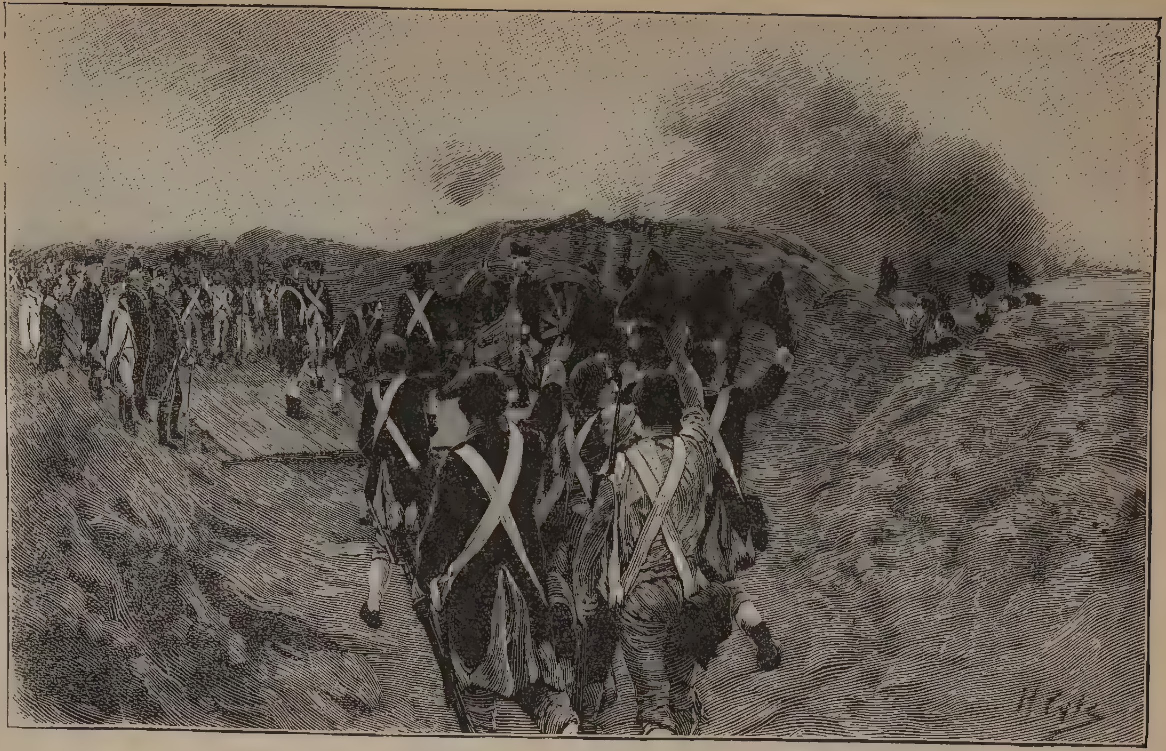
NATHANIEL GREENE.

170. Greene's Retreat into Virginia.—After his victory at Cowpens Morgan joined Greene. Cornwallis then chased them for two hundred miles northward across the Carolinas. In this famous retreat the Americans forded three rivers whose waters, swollen by rainstorms soon after the Americans had crossed, checked the British in their pursuit. Greene crossed the last of these, the Dan, just in time to escape the British, who were pressing closely upon his rear. Knowing that Greene would be reinforced in Virginia, Cornwallis dared not follow.

On receiving reinforcements Greene returned and fought his enemy at Guilford Court House, North Carolina (March 15, 1781). Here he was defeated, but withdrew his forces in good order. This battle was fatal to the plans of Cornwallis, for it so severely crippled his army—which lost about one-fourth of its whole number—that he would not follow Greene in his retreat. The remainder of the British army were tired out and almost famished. With his men in this condition Cornwallis could not return to Charleston, his base of supplies, but decided to go to Wilmington, where communication with the English fleet would

Battle of Guilford Court House.

Cornwallis retires to Wilmington.



WASHINGTON FIRING THE FIRST GUN AT THE SIEGE OF YORKTOWN.

A group of American and French officers to the left behind the gun.

be easy. Greene's Fabian policy had been very successful. He had worn out the enemy and forced him to seek the coast for supplies.

Greene at once greatly disturbed Cornwallis's peace of mind by marching back to South Carolina. Again and again Greene was defeated, but he skilfully handled his troops and inflicted severe losses upon the enemy. Before the close of 1781 the British held, in the States south of Virginia, only the two seaports of Charleston and Savannah. Greene was bold, cautious, active, and persevering. He had outgeneraled Cornwallis, the ablest English commander, and shown himself second only to Washington in military genius.

Greene's skill as a general.

171. Cornwallis Goes to Virginia.—Cornwallis, disappointed in the South, and regarding Virginia as the great storehouse of the Southern armies, now marched northward to get control of that State. Here he found a considerable force of British sent there to keep the inhabitants from aiding the more southern States. Arnold had set fire to Richmond and had destroyed much property in other parts of Virginia. La Fayette was there with a body of troops to look after the interests of the Americans. When Cornwallis reached Virginia he tried to entrap La Fayette, but the wily young Frenchman was not to be caught.

Cornwallis tries to entrap La Fayette.

Cornwallis then withdrew to Yorktown, where he could easily communicate with the English fleet. Clinton had ordered him to be in readiness to send reinforcements to New York in case the expected French fleet should co-operate with Washington in trying to capture that place.

172. Cornwallis, Entrapped at Yorktown, Surrenders.—Up to this time the French army had not been of any real service to the American cause, nor had the French fleet given much *direct* aid. Now, however, both their land forces and their fleet were to help Washington in carrying out a bold plan. The latter, whose army was lying on the Hudson, had been joined the

Direct aid from the French.

NELSON HOUSE, YORKTOWN, VA.

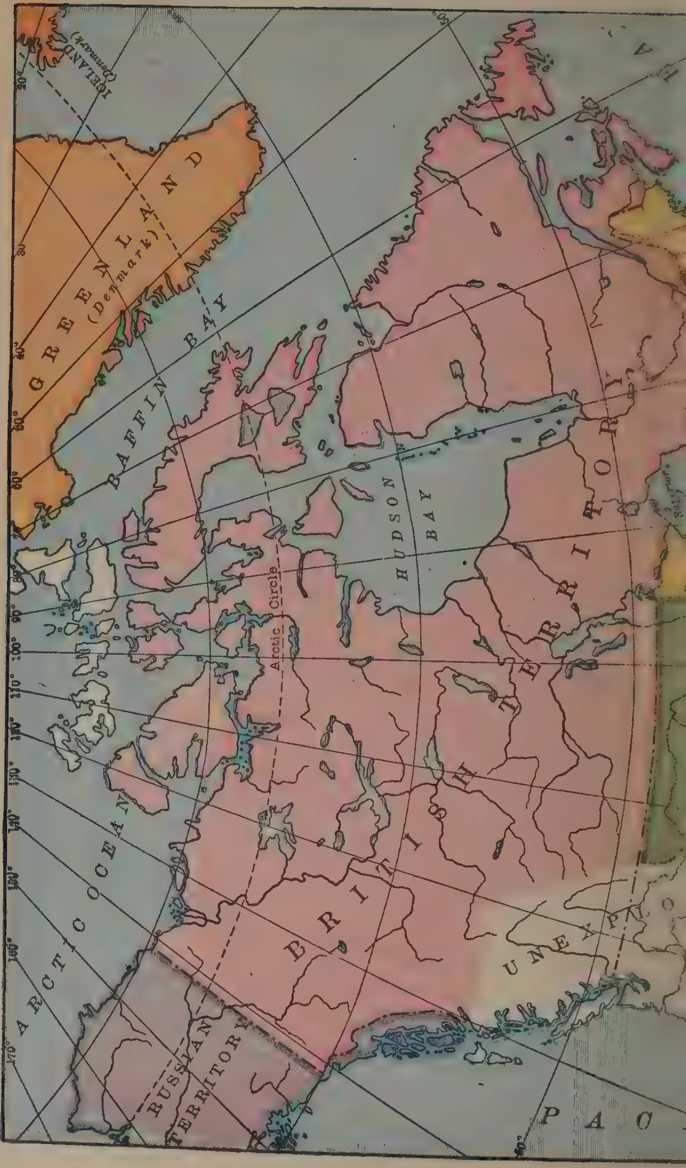
Which was occupied as headquarters by General Cornwallis.

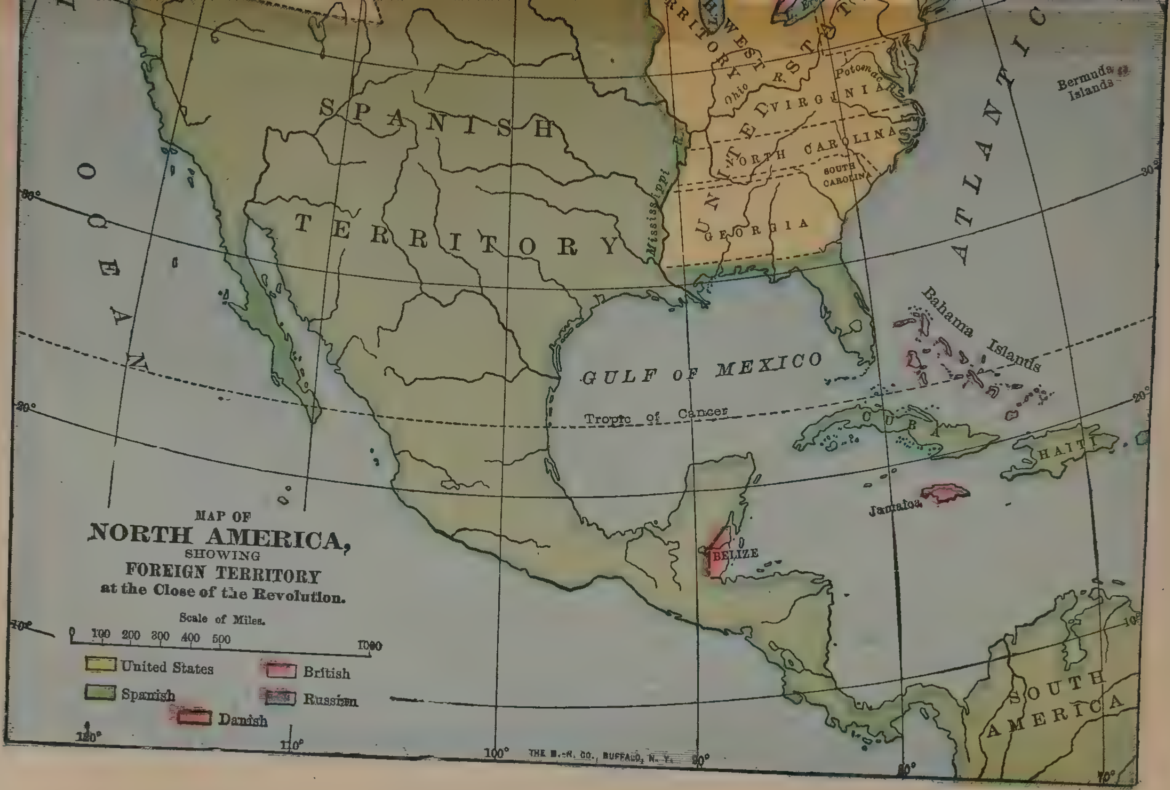
year before Cornwallis went to Yorktown by 6,000 fresh troops from France in command of Rochambeau. Clinton, who was at the head of the English forces in New York, hearing that a powerful French fleet was on its way with more land forces to America, feared that on its arrival there would be a combined attack by land and sea.

Washington's brilliant movement.

This had been the original plan, but when Washington learned that the fleet was on its way to the Chesapeake he withdrew from New York and began the execution of a brilliant movement. Leaving a small force on the Hudson, he marched the rest of his army four hundred miles to reinforce La Fayette in Virginia and co-operate with the fleet in capturing Cornwallis. So secretly and skilfully did Washington make his plans that he had almost reached Maryland before Clinton found out what was going on.

Clinton at once sent a fleet to drive the French fleet away. He also sent Arnold to burn New London, Connecticut, hoping thus to draw Washington back. But the English fleet failed in its attack on the French, and Washington was not to be turned aside from his purpose. Rapidly marching to the Chesapeake, he embarked his troops at


ICELAND
(Denmark)
GREENLAND
(Denmark)
BAFFIN BAY
HUDSON BAY
Arctic Circle
BRITISH TERRITORY
ARCTIC OCEAN
RUSSIAN TERRITORY
UNEXPLO
PAC
20°
30°
40°
50°
60°
70°
80°
90°
100°
110°
120°
130°
140°
150°
160°
170°



MAP OF
NORTH AMERICA,
SHOWING
FOREIGN TERRITORY
at the Close of the Revolution.

Baltimore and Elkton, and united with La Fayette, who had already been reinforced by a French land force from the fleet. Cornwallis, entirely surrounded, saw but one chance of escape. That was by crossing the York River and making a rapid retreat northward. A violent storm upset his plans.

Cornwallis surrenders.

As his army of 8,000 was matched against an army of 16,000, to say nothing of the fleet, a successful resistance was hopeless. Therefore, after a siege of about three weeks he surrendered his army (October 19, 1781).

173. The End of the War and the Treaty of Peace (1783).—The Americans everywhere rejoiced. Congress, adjourning in a body, attended church to offer thanksgiving for the great victory. It was plain to Americans and Englishmen that Cornwallis's surrender must end the war. Peace commissioners from both countries were therefore appointed to agree upon a treaty of peace.

The French Government tried hard to confine the Americans to the region east of the Alleghanies. But the work of George Rogers Clark and other Westerners who had bravely conquered and settled the vast regions north and south of the Ohio, aided our commissioners in securing for American independence the territory lying between the Alleghanies and the Mississippi, and between the Great Lakes and Florida. Florida was ceded back to Spain.

George Rogers Clark and the West.

George the Third's plan of personal government in America had failed. The Revolution secured independence in America; it overthrew the personal rule of George the Third in England. In 1784 young William Pitt had become the real head of the English Government, and Parliamentary reform was only a question of time.

George the Third fails to carry out his plans.

TO THE PUPIL

1. Review the attempt on the part of the British, first, to subdue Massachusetts in 1775, and second, to get control of the Hudson River and the Middle States in 1776 and 1777. You will remember that there was but little fighting in 1778 and 1779.
2. Why did the British in 1780 turn their attention to conquering the South? Take note of their first successes there.
3. Explain why the Battle of King's Mountain was important.
4. What was the character of partisan warfare in the South? Look up facts about the Swamp Fox and his men. Subject for essay: Partisan warfare in the South.
5. What were the results of Arnold's trial by court-martial? What reason did he assign for requesting that he might be placed in command of the troops at West Point?
6. How was his treasonable scheme to be carried out? What part did André take in this scheme? Discuss Arnold's disgrace and death. Subject for essay: Arnold the traitor.
7. What were the difficulties of Greene when he succeeded Gates in the South? How did Morgan's brilliant victory at Cowpens play havoc with the plans of Cornwallis?
8. What was the condition of the English army after the Battle of Guilford Court House? What had been Greene's main purpose and how had he carried it out?
9. Why did Cornwallis go to Yorktown? What direct aid did the Americans now receive from the French fleet? Before its arrival what plans of attack upon the British had Washington made? What changes did he make in his plans after the arrival of the fleet?
10. Outline the events leading to the surrender of Cornwallis. What were its results?
11. Study carefully these topics: George Rogers Clark and the West; George the Third fails to carry out his plans.
12. Subject for debate: Resolved, that Greene was a better general than Cornwallis. Subject for debate: Resolved, that the capture of Burgoyne was a greater achievement than the capture of Cornwallis.
13. Read Simms's Partisan and the chapter on Arnold's treason in Coffin's Boys of '76. Memorize Bryant's Song of Marion's Men.

CHAPTER XIV

THE BREAKDOWN OF THE CONFEDERATION AND THE FORMATION OF THE CONSTITUTION (1781–1789)

REFERENCES: **Scribner's** Popular History of the United States, IV.; **Fiske's** Critical Period of American History; **Fiske's** War of Independence; **Channing's** United States; **Hart's** Formation of the Union; **Fiske's** Civil Government.

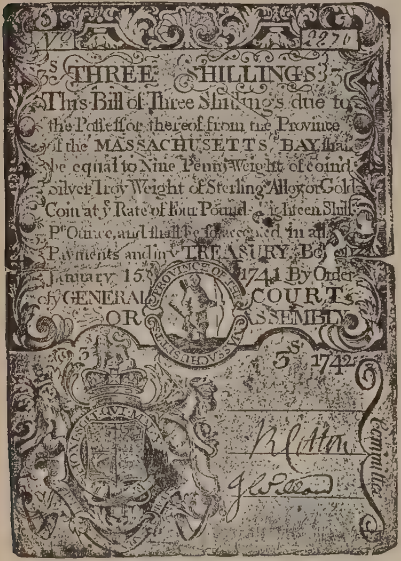
OUTSIDE READINGS: **Frothingham's** Rise of the Republic; **Hale's** Story of Massachusetts; **Johnston's** American Politics; **Hinsdale's** Old Northwest; **Lossing's** Field Book of the Revolution; **Roosevelt's** Winning of the West, III.; **Wilson's** A History of the American People, III.

174. **Congress During the Revolution.**—When the colonies threw off the yoke of Great Britain it was necessary that they should have some central authority to guide them in establishing their independence. To meet this need they formed the Continental Congress, which assumed many of the duties of such a government. But Congress, as we have seen, labored with great difficulties because it had no power to compel obedience. Early in the Revolution the people had formed State governments. They felt more closely in touch with these and were extremely jealous of any authority interfering with local control. This feeling found marked expression in the Articles of Confederation—a plan of government outlined by a committee which Congress appointed in June, 1776.

175. **Weakness of Congress Under the Confederation.**—Under the Articles of Confederation, which did not go into effect until 1781 (see par. 180), Congress had but little power. It could declare war, but it could not raise or support an army. It could find out the amount of revenue needed for the expenses of carrying on the government, but it could not raise a dollar by taxation. In our own

time the tariff supplies a large part of the government revenue, but as Congress could not at that time regulate commerce, it could not levy any duties on imported goods.

Commerce with foreign countries and between the States was under the control of the States. Congress could do nothing but request the States to pay certain sums of money needed by the central government, and the States could, and usually did, refuse to notice such requests.


No 2270
3s THREE SHILLINGS 3s
This Bill of Three Shillings due to the Poſſeſſor thereof from the Province of the MASSACHUSETTS BAY shall be equal to Nine Penny Weight of coin'd Silver Troy Weight of Sterling Alloy or Gold Coin at ye Rate of Four Pound Eighteen Shill. Pr Ounce, and shall be accepted in all Payments and in ye TREASURY. Boston January 15. 1741 By Order of ye GENERAL COURT OR ASSEMBLY
3 3s 1742

THREE SHILLING MASSACHUSETTS BILL OF 1741.

The States control commerce. In fact, the main business of Congress was to recommend and advise. It could not compel a State, or a citizen of a State, to do anything.

176. England and American Commerce.—A government so weak at home could not command respect abroad. Soon after the Revolution, Parliament began to enforce the restrictions upon American trade which had threatened to ruin the colonial commerce. Of course these acts of Parliament embittered the Americans against England, and they sought in vain for some way of retaliating. Thirteen independent States could not, or would not, agree upon a united plan of action, and as Congress could not regulate commerce nothing was done.

177. Commercial War Between the States.—Each State, managing its own commerce, tried to gain advantages over the other States in its trade relations. In order to increase its foreign trade, a State would sometimes make its duties on imported goods lower than those of a neighboring

State. Duties were levied on goods carried from one State into another. For example, New York laid a duty on chickens, vegetables, and dairy products from New Jersey, and on firewood from Connecticut. New Jersey retaliated by laying a tax of $1,800 a year upon a lighthouse which New York had erected on the New Jersey shore, and the merchants in Connecticut began to hold meetings for the purpose of stopping all trade with New York.

Congress without power to regulate commerce.

All such bickerings over inter-State trade made the States more jealous and unfriendly toward one another. And it is worthy of notice that all this increase of selfishness, the continuation of which could only result in civil war and the political ruin of the Confederation, was brought about by the inability of Congress to regulate commerce. But there were other commercial difficulties of a serious nature.

178. Financial Difficulties of the Confederation.—After the Revolution our imports, which had to be paid for in specie, were so much more than our exports that the country was soon drained of nearly all its gold and silver. Congress was in great need of money, and there was financial distress throughout the country.

179. Shays's Rebellion.—Business depression steadily continued to grow worse. People were in debt, their taxes were heavy, and they could not get money for what they had to sell. The consequence was that nearly all the States began to issue paper promises, which they called money. Distress was especially great among the farmers in western Massachusetts. Their cattle and their farms were sold by the sheriff, and they themselves were sometimes thrown into prison for debt. When their State Legislature refused to issue paper promises in order that they might pay their debts, two thousand angry farmers in the region about Springfield and Worcester, under the leadership of Daniel Shays, surrounded the court-houses in those cities and put a stop for the time to all lawsuits against debtors. For a while (in the latter part of 1786 and early part of 1787) they had things

Distress of farmers in western Massachusetts.

their own way. They not only burned barns and carried off movable goods, but they tried to seize the arsenal at Springfield for the purpose of securing muskets and cannon. After about seven months the rebellion was put down by the State militia.

180. Conflicting Claims to the Northwest Territory.—Thus we see that, by reason of the inability of Congress to regulate commerce and to raise money by taxation, difficulties were growing day by day. There was still another vexing question. That was the conflicting claims to the territory between the Ohio and the Mississippi, known as the Northwest Territory. Four States claimed each a part or all of it. Massachusetts and Connecticut based their claims to the northern part upon their chartered rights. New York insisted that about all of it belonged to her by an agreement with the Iroquois Indians. Virginia claimed the whole of it not only by chartered right but by the conquest of George Rogers Clark during the Revolution.

Maryland objects to these claims.

Of course these conflicting claims led to bitter disputing, in which Maryland took a leading part. She objected to the ownership of the Northwest Territory by a part of the States. She said that inasmuch as all the States had fought France and England to secure this territory, all ought to have a share in the ownership of it. Maryland therefore refused to agree to the Articles of Confederation until it was clear that these claims would be abandoned. The four States having yielded their claims, she signed the articles in 1781.

Results of common ownership.

In taking this position Maryland was doing a great service to the whole country. The common possession of the Northwest Territory by the thirteen States helped to hold the States together. They all had an equal interest in this extensive region, whose land sales would enable the Confederation to get money enough to pay all its debts.

181. The Ordinance of 1787.—The outcome of the dispute concerning this common ownership was the ordinance of 1787, which was the most important measure passed by the Confederation. This ordinance provided for the government of the Northwest Territory, and for dividing it into five States. Education was to be encouraged, and there was to be religious freedom. Although runaway slaves were to be returned to their masters, slavery was to be forever prohibited. This ordinance was passed by Congress in 1787, the year of the formation of the Constitution.

CELEBRATING IN NEW YORK THE ADOPTION OF THE CONSTITUTION.

182. Events Leading to the Constitutional Convention. —The many commercial and financial difficulties, ending in Shays's Rebellion, showed that the Confederation was breaking down. Shays's Rebellion in Massachusetts might soon be followed by similar upris-

The Confederation breaking down.

]

ings in other States. In the face of such dangers the Confederation was almost powerless. A better form of government had therefore become a necessity, and this the Constitutional Convention devised.

The question of the regulation of commerce led to the calling of the Constitutional Convention. Western settlement showed the need of connecting the East and the West by a system of canals. As the navigation of the Potomac River was concerned, commissioners from Maryland and Virginia met to adopt some regulations for the use of this river by the two States (1785). When the Virginia Legislature adopted the commissioners' report, they also voted to invite all the States to send delegates to a convention the following year. This convention was to consider commercial regulations for the whole country. As delegates from only five States met at this conference, held at Annapolis in 1786, it did not seem worth while to discuss the business for which they were called together. But before adjourning, they recommended that delegates from all the States should meet to consider the Articles of Confederation and make them adequate to the needs of the country.

The conference at Annapolis.

All the States except Rhode Island appointed some of their ablest men as delegates to the convention, which met in Philadelphia (May 25, 1787) and remained in secret session almost four months. Washington was presiding officer of this convention, which framed the Constitution[1] for the New Federal Union. The adoption of the Constitution required its ratification by nine States. When the ninth State ratified it on June 21, 1788,

The Constitution ratified.

---

[1] *Slavery Compromises in the Constitution.*—In appointing representatives to Congress from each State, some of the Southern States wished all the slaves to be counted. The Northern States opposed the counting of any of the slaves. Finally, it was agreed that in deciding the number of representatives from any slave State three-fifths of the slaves should be counted. The North, or commercial part of the country, wished the national government to have power to regulate commerce, but the South feared this power might be used to prohibit the slave trade. At last it was voted that Congress should have full control of commerce, but that importation of slaves should not be stopped before 1808.

preparations were immediately made for the organization of the new government.

183. Supporters and Opponents of the Constitution.— There was much opposition to the Constitution from men who honestly believed that too much power was given to the national government. These men believed that the States should have most of the power, as under the Confederation. Because they opposed the Federal Constitution they were called Anti-Federalists. The brilliant orator, Patrick Henry, belonged to this political party. Among the Federalists, or supporters of the Constitution, were Washington, Hamilton, and Franklin, who firmly believed in a strong central government to control all matters of national interest. After a long struggle between these political parties throughout the country, the Constitution was ratified by the various States, and thus the New Federal Union was established.

The Federalists and the Anti-Federalists.

TO THE PUPIL

1. The period from the close of the Revolution to the adoption of the Constitution has rightly been called the Critical Period. Ascertain the reason.
2. Why was there a delay in the adoption of the Articles of Confederation? What is meant by saying that Congress was merely an advisory body?
3. What was the relation between Congress and the various States?
4. Be sure that you get clear ideas about the following topics: Commercial war between the States; Congress without power to regulate commerce.
5. What financial difficulties did the Confederation have after the close of the Revolution? What caused Shays's Rebellion?
6. What claims were made by various States to the Northwest Territory? Why did Maryland object to these claims? Name the leading provisions in the Ordinance of 1787.
7. Can you now tell why the Confederation broke down? Outline the events leading to the Constitutional Convention in Philadelphia. What was the position taken by those who opposed the Constitution? By those who supported it?

CHRONOLOGY

1765. PASSAGE OF THE STAMP ACT.
1765. MEETING OF STAMP ACT CONGRESS.
1767. NEW TAXES ON GLASS, LEAD, PAPER, AND TEA.
1768. BRITISH TROOPS QUARTERED IN BOSTON.
1770. BOSTON MASSACRE.
1773. DESTRUCTION OF TEA IN BOSTON AND ELSEWHERE.
1774. BOSTON PORT BILL PASSED.
THE CONTINENTAL CONGRESS MEETS AT PHILADELPHIA.
1775. *April* 19, FIGHT AT LEXINGTON AND CONCORD.
May 10, CAPTURE OF TICONDEROGA AND CROWN POINT. SECOND MEETING OF THE CONTINENTAL CONGRESS.
1775. *June* 15, WASHINGTON APPOINTED COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF. *June* 17, BATTLE OF BUNKER HILL.
November 12, MONTREAL TAKEN BY MONTGOMERY—ARNOLD'S MARCH TO QUEBEC.
December 30, DANIEL BOONE SETTLES IN KENTUCKY.
1776. *January* 1, UNION FLAG RAISED AT CAMBRIDGE, MASS.
February 27, BATTLE OF MOORE'S CREEK BRIDGE.
June, ARRIVAL OF BRITISH FLEET IN NEW YORK BAY. *June* 28, ATTACK ON FORT SULLIVAN, CHARLESTON, S. C.
July 4, DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE BY CONGRESS.
August 27, BATTLE OF LONG ISLAND.
September 15, AMERICANS ABANDON NEW YORK.
October 28, BATTLE OF WHITE PLAINS.
November 16, SURRENDER OF FORT WASHINGTON.
December 26, BATTLE OF TRENTON.
1777. *January* 3, BATTLE OF PRINCETON.
June 14, FLAG OF STARS AND STRIPES ADOPTED BY CONGRESS.
July 6, BURGOYNE CAPTURES TICONDEROGA.
August 6, BATTLE OF ORISKANY. *August* 16, BATTLE OF BENNINGTON.
September 11, BATTLE OF BRANDYWINE.
October 4, BATTLE OF GERMANTOWN. *October* 17, SURRENDER OF BURGOYNE. HOWE OCCUPIES PHILADELPHIA.
1778. CONWAY CABAL.
ALLIANCE WITH FRANCE.
May, CLARK'S EXPEDITION TO ILLINOIS.
June, ATTACK ON WYOMING. *June* 18, BRITISH LEAVE PHILADELPHIA. *June* 28, BATTLE OF MONMOUTH.
July, ARRIVAL OF FRENCH FLEET UNDER D'ESTAING.
December 29, SAVANNAH TAKEN BY THE BRITISH.
1779. *September* 22, FIGHT BETWEEN THE *BONHOMME RICHARD* AND THE *SERAPIS*.
SULLIVAN'S EXPEDITION AGAINST THE IROQUOIS.
1780. *May*, CAPTURE OF CHARLESTON BY THE BRITISH.
August 16, BATTLE OF CAMDEN.
September, ARNOLD'S TREASON.
1781. *January* 17, BATTLE OF COWPENS.
March 15, BATTLE OF GUILFORD COURTHOUSE.
September 8, BATTLE OF EUTAW SPRINGS.
October 19 CORNWALLIS'S SURRENDER AT YORKTOWN.

1782. *November* 30, PRELIMINARY TREATY OF PEACE SIGNED.
1783. *September* 3, FINAL TREATY OF PEACE WITH GREAT BRITAIN SIGNED.
November 25, EVACUATION OF NEW YORK.
December 4, WASHINGTON TAKES LEAVE OF HIS OFFICERS.
1784. JEFFERSON'S NORTHWEST ORDINANCE PROPOSED.
1786. SHAYS'S REBELLION.
1787. NORTHWEST TERRITORY ORGANIZED, AND ORDINANCE ADOPTED.
May 25, CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION MET AT PHILADELPHIA.
September 17, CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES SIGNED BY THE DELEGATES.
1788. *June* 21, CONSTITUTION RATIFIED BY NEW HAMPSHIRE, SECURING ITS ADOPTION.

CHAPTER XV

THE NEW STRUGGLE FOR POLITICAL INDEPENDENCE AND THE GROWTH OF NATIONAL FEELING (1789–1829)

REFERENCES: **Scribner's** Popular History of the United States, IV.; **Andrews's** United States, I.; **Walker's** Making of the Nation; **Richardson's** History of Our Country; **Wright's** Children's Stories of American Progress; **Hale's** Stories of Invention; **Coffin's** Building the Nation; **Hart's** Formation of the Union; **Channing's** United States; **Eggleston's** Household History; **Drake's** Making the Great West; **Drake's** Making the Ohio Valley States; **Barnes's** Popular History of the United States; **Burgess's** Middle Period.

OUTSIDE READINGS: **McMaster's** United States, I.–IV.; **Hildreth's** United States, IV.–VI.; **Schouler's** United States, I.; **Henry Adams's** United States, I.–IX.; **Brooks's** First Across the Continent; **Lossing's** Field-book of the War of 1812; **Roosevelt's** Winning of the West, IV.; **Roosevelt's** Naval War of 1812; **Spears's** History of Our Navy; **Wilson's** A History of the American People, III.; **Thwaites's** Rocky Mountain Exploration; **Hosmer's** A History of the Mississippi Valley; **Hart's** How Our Grandfathers Lived; **Gordy's** Political History of the United States, I.–II.; **Parton's** General Jackson; **Johnston's** American Politics; **Lodge's** George Washington; **Lodge's** Alexander Hamilton; **Morse's** Thomas Jefferson; **Wharton's** Martha Washington; **Bolton's** Famous Americans; **Gilman's** James Monroe; **Magruder's** John Marshall; **Gay's** James Madison; **Schurz's** Henry Clay; **Morse's** John Quincy Adams.

FICTION: **Martineau's** Peasant and Prince; **Dickens's** Tale of Two Cities; **Henty's** In the Reign of Terror; **Hale's** Philip Nolan's Friends; **Hale's** Man Without a Country; **Elggeston's** Signal Boys; **Eggleston's** Captain Sam; **Eggleston's** Big Brother; **Bynner's** Zachary Phips; **Seawell's** Little Jarvis; **Seawell's** Midshipman Paulding.

POETRY: **Holmes's** Ode for Washington's Birthday; **Key's** Star Spangled Banner; **Drake's** American Flag; **Holmes's** God Save the Flag; **Holmes's** Old Ironsides.

DOMESTIC AFFAIRS IN THE EARLY YEARS OF THE NEW GOVERNMENT

184. **Washington the First President.**—It was natural that the people should wish George Washington to be

the first President.[1] He stood for no party but was the choice of all the people, and he received the unanimous vote of the Presidential electors.[2] John Adams, of Massachusetts, was elected Vice-President. The inauguration had been planned for the first Wednesday in March, but travelling was so slow in those days that it was impossible for Congress to meet and count the electoral votes in time to have the inauguration before April 30. New York City was the capital of the country.

The Inauguration.

The inauguration at Federal Hall was very impressive. The oath of office was solemnly taken, and the chancellor of New York, who had given it, then turned to the people and cried, "Long live George Washington, President of the United States!" The cry was taken up by the throng, who, amid their joyous shouts, had escorted Washington from his house in New York to Federal Hall on his way to deliver his first inaugural.

185. The Number and Distribution of the People.—According to the census of 1790 the population of the

---

[1] George Washington, first President of the United States (1789-1797), was born in Westmoreland County, Va., February 22, 1732, and died at Mount Vernon December 14, 1799. When he was eleven years old his father died, leaving the youth in care of a faithful and devoted mother. While at school George was painstaking and careful with his work and excelled in such athletic sports as running, leaping, and wrestling. He was so true to himself and to others that he often acted as a judge in deciding disputes between his young friends. In 1759 he married a rich young widow, Mrs. Martha Custis, whose property, added to his own large estates at Mount Vernon, made him a man of much wealth. His bravery, patriotism, and military skill, as shown in the Last French War, led to his being chosen by the Continental Congress as Commander-in Chief of the American troops during the Revolution. By reason of his modesty he shrank from this service, for which he was admirably fitted. He refused to receive any pay during the entire Revolution. It may indeed be truly said that he proved himself indispensable to the success of the Americans in that war. He was a man of commanding presence and dignified manner. His success lay not in intellectual brilliancy, but in a well-balanced judgment, in a belief that right made might, and in a rare power of winning men's confidence.

[2] Under Section I., Article II., of the Constitution, may be found the following:

"Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the Legislature thereof may direct, a number of *Electors* equal to the whole number of Senators and Representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress." The people in the various States vote for these Presidential electors. The latter, called when taken together the Electoral College, vote directly for President and Vice-President.

Well-settled regions.

United States was nearly 4,000,000 souls, about one-fifth of whom were negroes. Most of the people resided in the thirteen original States, not more than five per cent. being found west of the Alleghanies. The belt of settlement extended from Maine to Florida, with an average width of two hundred and fifty-five miles. The most densely peopled regions were on the coast of Massachusetts, of southern New England, and of New York. Other well-settled regions included the Hudson River valley as far as Albany, the Mohawk valley, the route now followed by the Pennsylvania Railroad from New York across New Jersey to Philadelphia, and the river valleys of eastern Virginia.

WASHINGTON'S MANSION—SOUTH AND WEST FRONTS—MT. VERNON, VA.

Five principal commercial centres.

Virginia ranked first in population, having 532,000 inhabitants. Massachusetts and Pennsylvania, with about 330,000 each, stood next. There were no large cities. The principal commercial centres were Philadelphia, with about 31,000; New York, with 23,000; Boston, with 15,000; Baltimore, with

13,000, and Charleston, with nearly 11,000. All these five cities contained fewer people than Albany or Denver alone contains to-day.

186. Modes of Travel.—The people lived mainly along rivers or on the coast, because one of the easiest and most convenient methods of travel was by boat or sailing packet. It is not easy for us to realize how simple the conditions of life were in those days. Imagine our being without steamboats, railroads, electric cars, telegraphs, and telephones, and you will have an idea how slowly life moved in 1789.

Simple conditions of life.

WASHINGTON'S BEDROOM, MT. VERNON, VA.

The best method of conveying passengers and goods by land was the clumsy old stage-coach. In Washington's first administration two stage-coaches and twelve horses were sufficient to accommodate all the people and carry all the goods passing between Boston and New York, two of the chief commercial centres in the country. It took about as long to make the trip as it does now to travel from Boston to San Francisco, or from New York to Liverpool. In summer the stage could cover forty miles a day. In winter, when the snow lay upon the ground or the roads were heavy with mud, the distance was cut down to twenty-five miles a day. About ten o'clock at night the traveller reached the wayside inn, where he put up for the night. He was called at three o'clock the next morning in time to renew his journey for another eighteen hours.

The old stage-coach.

187. Ferries.—There were no bridges spanning large rivers as there are now. In going by stage from Boston to Philadelphia the passenger had to be ferried across eight or ten rivers. In a high wind these crossings were very dangerous, owing to great blocks of floating ice. Not uncommonly the ferryboat was upset by a sudden gust of wind. The passage in winter from New York to Jersey City (then Paulus Hook) involved more risk than a trip from New York to Japan does now.

188. The Mails.—To-day a number of express trains daily carry mail in less than six hours from New York to Boston, but in Washington's time a postman carried the mail on horseback from New York to Boston three times a week in summer and twice in winter. It required six days to make the trip in summer and nine in winter. A pair of saddle-bags sufficed to carry all the mail between these two commercial centres. Postmen carried mail from New York to Philadelphia five times a week, and were two days in making the journey. In regions remote from business centres an old man was often made post-rider. While his horse jogged leisurely along he would while away the lonely hours in knitting socks and mittens or in opening and reading the letters in the mail-bag.

The post-rider.

SERVANTS' QUARTERS, MT. VERNON, VA.

Lack of national patriotism.

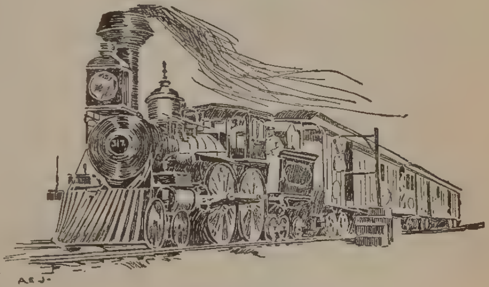
These clumsy methods of travel and communication kept the people ignorant of those parts of the country which were not near them. The Massachusetts citizen knew very little about the citizen of South Carolina, and neither understood the other. Under such conditions there was much foolish prejudice in each State against people in other States, and but little attachment to the Union. We see, therefore, that the patriotism of those days was a State patriotism rather than a national patriotism.

189. Washington's Formality.—The Federalists included much the larger part of the wealthy and commercial classes, and were especially strong in the cities. They were aristocratic in their feelings and were inclined to imitate English social and official customs. Believing in a strong central government, they wished the Presidential office to be one of great dignity. Washington had seen something of the pomp and state of the royal governor's court in Virginia, and it seems to have appealed to his sense of fitness. He therefore surrounded himself with much ceremony. On state occasions he rode in a coach drawn by six horses, and on ordinary occasions in a coach drawn by four horses. When walking on the street he was followed at a respectful distance by a body servant in livery. Every Tuesday afternoon, from three to four o'clock, he held at the executive mansion a public reception, when he appeared in court dress, with powdered hair, a dress-sword at his side, and a cocked hat under his arm. Standing with his right hand behind him, he bowed formally as his guests were presented. Moreover, he allowed his birthday to be celebrated.

Aristocratic feelings of the Federalists.

Washington at public receptions.

A MAIL CARRIER.



A FAST MAIL—1876.

A TWENTIETH CENTURY FLYER.

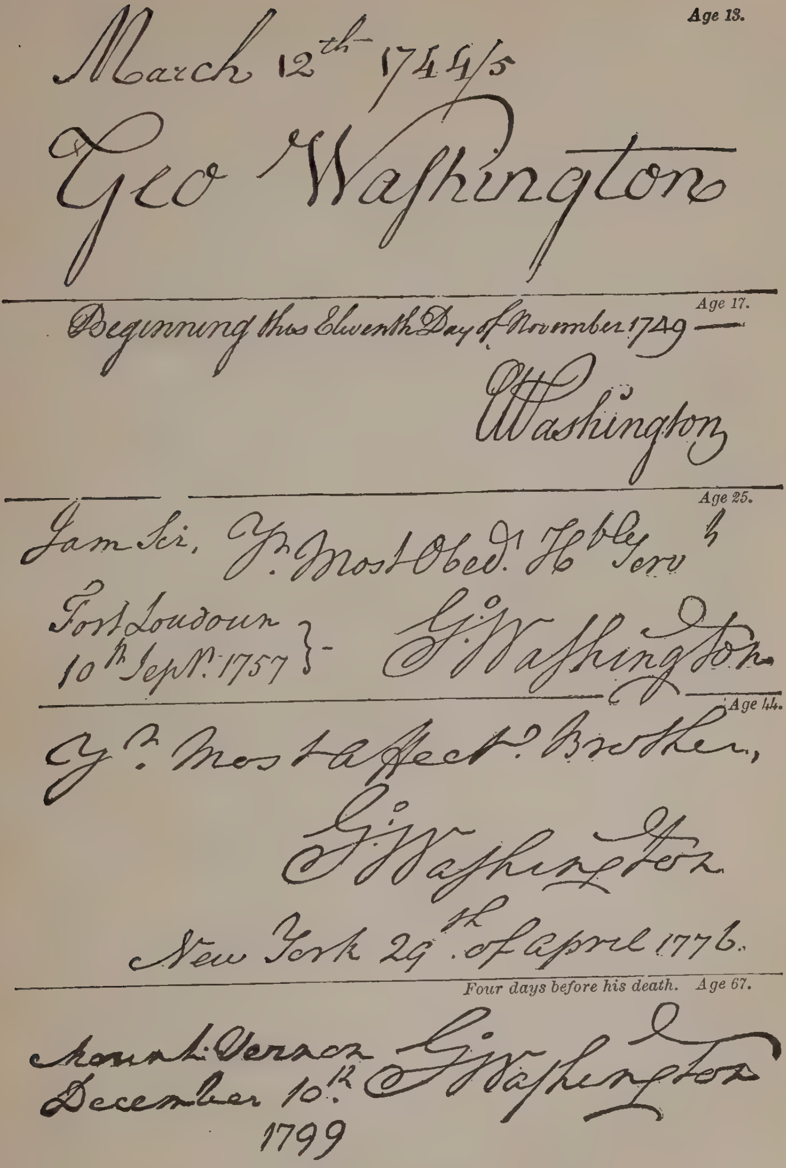
These things greatly displeased many people, who charged Washington with the desire to become king. They wished the President to dress plainly and to live as simply as an ordinary citizen.

190. The New Government.—Washington's first duty was to organize the new government. John Jay was appointed first Chief Justice of the Supreme Court. The cabinet is most important, because its members are the heads of various executive departments and aid the President in doing his official work. Washington chose for his cabinet four eminent citizens who represented both political parties. Thomas Jefferson became Secretary of State; Alexander Hamilton, Secretary of the Treasury; General Henry Knox, Secretary of War; and Edmund Randolph, Attorney-General.

JOHN JAY.

191. Hamilton and Jefferson the Two Great Political Leaders.—Hamilton was a stanch Federalist, but Jefferson was a bitter opponent of the Federalists. They became the respective leaders of the two political parties, and were soon engaged in a long and bitter struggle to carry out their views of government. The struggle was not personal. It was a struggle of principles and did not end when Hamilton and Jefferson passed out of public life. It continued until it brought on the great Civil War. Shall the Federal Government be supreme over the State? Shall there be a liberal construction of the Constitution, so as to grant large powers to Congress and the President? Hamilton said "Yes;" Jefferson said "No." Jefferson feared that the Federal Government might become so strong as to rob the States of their powers and at last to drift into a monarchy. He believed that the general government had only such powers as were definitely

Shall the Federal or the State Government be supreme?



Age 13.

March 12th 1744/5

Geo Washington

Age 17.

Beginning this Eleventh Day of November 1749 —

GWashington

Age 25.

I am Sir, Yr Most Obedt Hble Servt

Fort Loudoun
10th Septr 1757 } - Go: Washington

Age 44.

Yr most affect. Brother,

Go: Washington

New York 29th of April 1776.

Four days before his death. Age 67.

Mount Vernon
December 10th
1799
Go: Washington

HOW WASHINGTON SIGNED HIS NAME AT VARIOUS AGES.

granted in the Constitution. In other words, he believed in a "strict construction" of the Constitution.

192. Hamilton's Plan for Establishing Credit.—The new government had many difficulties to face. The most serious and pressing of these were its debts. The old Confederation had little credit at home or abroad. If the United States was to lift its head among the nations it must first find its footing in a firm financial policy. Alexander Hamilton had a wonderful insight and clear understanding in money matters, and he brought his sound judgment to the support of the new government. He knew that the only way of gaining credit is by paying one's debts. He therefore recommended that the United States assume in full all the debts of the Confederation, both foreign and domestic. In regard to the foreign debt, Congress readily assented. After some discussion, it voted to pay also the domestic debt, or that owed to American citizens.

Hamilton's financial policy.

ALEXANDER HAMILTON.

But Hamilton was a very conservative man. He clung to old principles of government. He wished to establish a government of whose strength the nation need not be ashamed. In his plan for building up the nation's credit, therefore, he proposed that, besides its own debts, or the debts which had been handed down from the Confederation, the United States should assume the debts of the separate States. The Union would thus establish a supremacy over the separate States. As the State debts were mostly loans from wealthy Americans, these influential citizens would be attached as creditors to the Union. They would become directly interested in building up its financial credit. They

He recommends the payment of the State debts by the United States.

would work to make the central government strong by giving it a large taxing power with which to obtain a revenue to pay its debts.

Jefferson's followers oppose the payment of the State debts.

This part of the plan was novel and unexpected, and greatly alarmed the followers of Jefferson. They believed that the States should do a large part of the governing. They dreaded more than all else a strong central government, because they feared it might lead to a monarchy. They accused Hamilton of trying to rob the people of their rights by placing them under the rule of a king. Accordingly, the followers of Jefferson opposed the payment of the State debts by the United States, and after a bitter struggle defeated Hamilton's scheme by a narrow majority.

Washington made the capital.

Later, however, in return for an agreement to locate the new capital, Washington, upon the banks of the Potomac, the Jeffersonians conceded the assumption of the State debts to the followers of Hamilton. The measure proved one of the wisest policies ever adopted. It was a brilliant example of Hamilton's far-seeing statesmanship.

193. A Tariff Laid on Foreign Trade.—How to raise the money to pay all these debts was a serious question. At its first session, Congress laid an indirect tax upon vessels and certain kinds of goods coming into this country from foreign ports. This tax, or tariff, was not only for the purpose of raising a revenue, but also for protecting the young manufactories springing up at various points in the United States. As this tariff did not yield revenue enough for the country's need, a direct tax was laid later on spirituous liquors (1794). Direct taxes are not generally popular, and this one was no exception. It was an unpleasant reminder of the Stamp Act. We need not be surprised, therefore, that resistance was offered to this direct tax imposed by the new government.

Tax on spirituous liquors.

194. The Whiskey Rebellion (1794).—The people of western Pennsylvania lived so far from business centres, which they could reach only by poor roads, that it was very expensive for them to transport their grain to market. There was more profit in making the grain into whiskey, which was much less bulky than the grain from which it was made. As the tax levied upon the whiskey lessened the profit of the farmers, they regarded this tax as unjust. They therefore refused to pay it, and severely handled officers sent by the Government to see that it was enforced. The people rose in arms to resist the law, but Washington promptly sent a body of troops, which easily put down the insurrection.

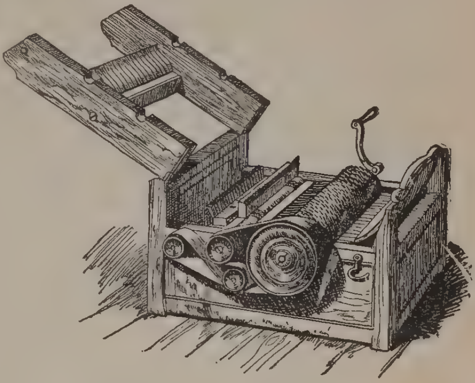
195. The Invention of the Cotton-gin (1793).—The Whiskey Rebellion had merely a passing interest. Whitney's cotton-gin had a permanent influence upon our history. Let us now consider that remarkable invention. In 1793 Eli Whitney, a Massachusetts man then living as a tutor at the home of General Greene's widow in Georgia, invented the cotton-gin. The influence of this invention upon cotton-growing, slavery, and the future history of the country cannot be measured. Before that time cotton was not raised to any great extent in the South. Without the cotton-gin a slave could separate, in a day, the seeds from only a single pound of cotton fibre, but now, with the aid of the cotton-gin, he could in the same time separate the seeds from a thousand pounds. The value of slave labor was thus greatly increased, and the planter could afford to sell his cotton much cheaper than before.

A PRIMITIVE COTTON-GIN.

At once there was a great and increasing demand for cotton in English as well as Northern cotton-mills, and its

Results of the invention of the cotton-gin.

culture became highly profitable. The general belief had been that slavery would gradually die out all over the country. It did not pay in the North, where there were no large plantations, and in that region it was already disappearing. But now the cotton-growers in the South and the owners of cotton-mills in the North had a selfish interest in the institution. For the owners of cotton-mills, like the planters, made money on the ever-increasing demand for cotton, the price of which had been greatly lessened by the cotton-gin. They all thought that cotton-raising could not be carried on successfully without slave-labor. Hence the demand from this time forward for more and more slaves in the cotton States.


WHITNEY'S FIRST COTTON-GIN.

TO THE PUPIL

1. Note the fact that Washington was President for two terms, 1789–1797.
2. With your map before you, study carefully the distribution of the people in 1790. Why did the people live mainly along rivers or on the coast?
3. Try to form vivid mental pictures of travel by the old stage-coach. How was the mail carried in 1790? How did the clumsy methods of travel and communication affect the attitude of the people in one State toward the people of another State? On all these topics McMaster's History, I., will repay careful reading.
4. What classes of people were included in the Federalists? Discuss Washington's formality.
5. What is meant by the Cabinet?
6. "Shall the Federal Government be supreme over the States?" What answer did Hamilton give? Jefferson? You may well keep this great question in mind, for it will come up again and again in

the subsequent periods of our history. As you will find later, disagreement about the answer led at last to Civil War. What is meant by "strict construction" of the Constitution?

7. What was Hamilton's financial policy? Why did he urge that the United States should assume the debts of the separate States? Why did Jefferson's followers oppose this part of Hamilton's plan?
8. Which do you think was right in his attitude toward the State debts, Hamilton or Jefferson? Give reasons for your answer.
9. Review the difference between a direct and an indirect tax. What indirect tax was levied? What was its purpose? What direct tax was levied? Why was it unpopular?
10. What influence did the invention of the cotton-gin have upon the production of cotton by slave-labor? Explain why the Southern planters and the Northern cotton-mill owners had, from the time the cotton-gin was invented, a selfish interest in slavery.
11. For social life in New England and in other States read Coffin's Building the Nation.

FOREIGN RELATIONS IN THE EARLY YEARS OF THE NEW GOVERNMENT

196. A Period of Trial and Uncertainty for the Young Republic (1789–1815).—When in 1789 Washington became President, many intelligent people, both in Europe and America, doubted whether the Federal Union would live long. This was a reasonable doubt, for the young republic was yet weak and called forth little national feeling. A foreign traveller, visiting the United States at this time, said that he found no Americans; that the people were all English or French in their sympathies and feelings. The English party, or the Hamiltonians, and the French party, or the Jeffersonians, were almost as intense in their dislike of each other as were Englishmen and Frenchmen in Europe.

Little national feeling in the United States.

Soon after the outbreak of the French Revolution (1789), war began between France and England and, with short intervals of peace, continued until Napoleon's downfall at Waterloo (1815). During this great struggle many efforts were made to drag the United States into the war. Both France and England were unwilling that this country should remain neu-

War between France and England.

tral. When the United States refused to form an alliance with either country, both of them seriously injured our commerce. They showed little respect for a people who seemed so lacking in national spirit.

From 1789 to 1815 the Americans struggle for independence of Europe.

The entire period from 1789 to the close of the War of 1812 was one of anxiety for the well-wishers of the republic. During all these years the American people were engaged in a struggle similar to the American Revolution. In the earlier struggle they were fighting to become independent of England; in the later they were striving to become independent of Europe. This later period culminated in the War of 1812, which has been rightly called the Second War of Independence. But from the beginning of Washington's administration the struggle over commercial or other difficulties was pressing.

The French Revolution.

197. Influence of the French Revolution upon American Affairs.—The same year that Washington became President was also the first year of the French Revolution. The people of France had been so oppressively taxed and otherwise misgoverned that they were at last ready to resort to violence against the French monarchy. They tore down the gloomy prison called the Bastile and afterward put to death the king and queen. In the "reign of terror" that followed thousands of men and women were guillotined. To add to the confusion, the French Republic was soon at war with neighboring countries. She declared war with England in 1793.

Washington refuses to aid France.

Hamilton and his followers took the side of England; Jefferson and his supporters sympathized with the French revolutionists. As France had helped us in the American Revolution, the French claimed that we ought to help them in their struggle for freedom. At first Washington and the Hamiltonians, with gratitude to France for aid given us in the American Revolution, felt a warm interest; but later, when the revolutionists had resorted to extreme violence to carry out their plans, Hamilton began to regard them with great distrust.

Besides, Washington agreed with Hamilton in the belief that we were too weak to become involved in European wars, and he therefore issued a proclamation of neutrality.

198. Citizen Genet Defies Washington.—The new French Government, the Directory, knowing that many Americans were in sympathy with the French revolutionists, sent Citizen Genet as minister to the United States. In utter defiance of the President this indiscreet man tried to fit out American privateers to be used in destroying English commerce. In answer to objections from Washington, Genet threatened to appeal to the people, hoping they would approve his course and take his side against their own President. This threat was a striking bit of audacity and showed the contempt Genet felt for our government. But the people sustained Washington, and at his request Citizen Genet was recalled.

199. Jay's Fruitless Treaty with England.—The English would not give up Oswego, Niagara, Detroit, and other Northwestern forts which, by the treaty of peace at the close of the Revolution, they had agreed to surrender. They also seriously interfered with our commerce by forcibly stopping and searching our vessels for deserters, and in many cases impressing our seamen into their service. Besides all this, they would not let us trade with the English West Indies. On the other hand, the English maintained that we had failed to keep our part of the same treaty by refusing to pay certain debts owed by Americans to English merchants, and by not making good the losses sustained by American Tories when they left their homes in this country during the Revolution.

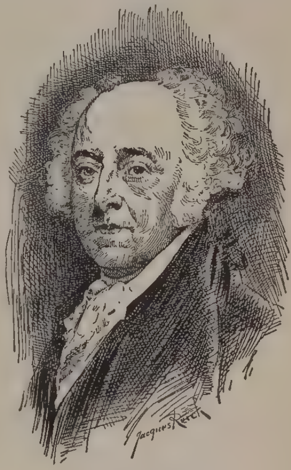
Our difficulties with England.

To settle these difficulties John Jay was sent over to England. As a result a treaty was agreed upon which settled nothing about the impressment of American seamen. England refused to discontinue this practice, but Jay felt that in our weak position among the nations of the world we must be satisfied with what we could get from a country so much stronger than our own. Washington, believing the treaty was the

Jay's treaty makes the Americans indignant.

best we could arrange, urged its adoption. A large part of the American people were indignant. Hamilton was stoned while making a speech in New York in defence of the treaty, and Washington was so bitterly attacked and unjustly accused that he said he would rather be in his grave than be President.

200. Political Parties.—Originally, as we have seen, those supporting the Constitution were called Federalists, and those opposing it Anti-Federalists. After the Constitution went into effect, the Federalists, under the lead of Alexander Hamilton, favored a strong central government, while the Anti-Federalists, under the lead of Jefferson, wished the States to have most of the powers of government. The Jeffersonians called themselves Republicans, but since Jefferson's followers favored the French revolutionists, the Federalists called them Democrats, after the French Democrats. A little later they became known as Democratic-Republicans. In Andrew Jackson's administration they were called Democrats, and the name has remained till the present time.



JOHN ADAMS.

201. The "X Y Z Papers."—Our trouble with France was by no means settled by the recall of Genet. When the Jay treaty with England was ratified, the French were so angry that they sent home our minister and recalled their own from the United States. French cruisers openly attacked our merchant vessels. The country was too weak for war, and President Adams[1] wished to avoid one if possible.

The French angry about the Jay treaty.

---

[1] John Adams, second President of the United States (1797–1801), was born at Braintree, Massachusetts, in 1735 and died July 4, 1826. After graduating from Harvard he became a lawyer. He was a prominent member of the Continental Con-

The French having promised to receive an embassy with honor, President Adams sent over three envoys, John Marshall, afterward Chief Justice, Charles Pinckney, and Elbridge Gerry to set things right. Upon their arrival they were not received with respect. They were boldly informed that peace with France could be secured only on two conditions: (1) That a large sum of money should be paid to members of the Directory, and (2) that an additional sum should be loaned to France for carrying on her wars. The papers reporting to Congress these shameful propositions were signed, not by the names of the secret agents representing the French Government, but by the letters X Y Z. Hence they were called the "X Y Z Papers." Pinckney's indignant reply was, "Millions for defence, but not one cent for tribute," and this became a rallying cry throughout the United States.

Serious trouble with France.

Congress organized an army and put Washington at the head of it. In the meantime, the French continued to capture our vessels and seized a thousand of them. Soon a state of war existed on the sea, where Commodore Truxton defeated and captured two French frigates.[1] These defeats recalled France from her insolent attitude, and when President Adams again sent over envoys,

---

gress, and proposed Washington for commander-in-chief of the American troops. Being an eloquent advocate of independence, he did much to bring about a political separation from England. He was one of the three commissioners who negotiated a treaty of peace with Great Britain at the close of the Revolution and afterward became the first American minister to England. His honesty and courage won the admiration of his friends, but his obstinacy and lack of tact involved him in many quarrels.

John Adams was inaugurated at Philadelphia, which had taken the place of New York as the seat of government. During his term of office, in 1800, Washington became the capital.

[1] Out of the excitement that thrilled the people the song, "Hail, Columbia," sprang. The words were written by a lawyer of Philadelphia, Joseph Hopkinson, and set to the music of the march composed for Washington's inauguration. "Hail, Columbia" was first sung at a theatre in Philadelphia. The applause was tremendous. Men rose to their feet, throwing their hats into the air, and women vigorously waved their handkerchiefs. Again and again the audience called for the song until it had been sung nine times. In a few weeks "Hail, Columbia" was known by thousands of enthusiastic Americans.

Napoleon Bonaparte, who was then at the head of affairs, made things satisfactory to this country.

202. Alien and Sedition Laws (1798).—These difficulties with France stirred the patriotic feelings of our people and for a time strengthened the Federalist party. Its leaders went too far, however, when they passed the Alien and Sedition Laws. Many of the Democratic-Republican newspapers were under the influence of Frenchmen who had come to live in the United States. These men used their papers to make bitter and slanderous attacks upon President Adams and the government. Naturally the Federalists, with their leanings toward a strong central government, believed that such attacks weakened the Union by lessening the respect of the people for it. They therefore passed the Alien Law, which gave the President power to send out of the country any foreigner whom he might think dangerous to its peace. The Sedition Law gave him power to fine or imprison any one who might conspire against the government or publish anything evil against it.

The Virginia and the Kentucky Resolutions (1798-1799).

This law violated the first Amendment to the Constitution by interfering with the freedom of the press, and aroused the Democratic-Republicans to a high state of indignation. They said such laws were tyrannical and proved the desire of the Federal leaders for something like a monarchy. The Virginia Resolutions, written by Madison, and the Kentucky Resolutions, written by Jefferson, expressed their dislike of the Alien and Sedition Laws. These Resolutions not only declared the laws to be unconstitutional, but the Kentucky Resolutions went so far as to say that a State might rightfully nullify any act passed by Congress that was not constitutional. Nullifying a law is declaring it not binding, and therefore nullification is a most dangerous doctrine; for if each State should reserve the right to refuse obedience to any law which in its judgment violates the Constitution, that document would in time be worth as little as the paper it is written on, and the Federal Union would fall to pieces.

203. Chief Justice Marshall's Influence in Strengthening the Federal Union.—That this result was not brought about was largely due to the influence of one man. Just before going out of office in 1801, President Adams appointed John Marshall,[1] of Virginia, as Chief Justice of the Supreme Court. He heartily believed in the liberal construction of the Constitution, and for thirty-five years his decisions as Chief Justice of the Supreme Court had great influence in making the general government superior to the States in all questions affecting the common interests of the whole people. It has well been said of him: "He found the Constitution paper, and made it power; he found it a skeleton, and clothed it with flesh and blood."

TO THE PUPIL

1. Review the significance of the following dates: 1492, 1588, 1689. Now add to these 1789. Why is it significant? Can you think of any reason for the lack of national feeling among the Americans in 1789?
2. Look up in Coffin's Building the Nation the causes of the French Revolution.
3. Why was the entire period from 1789 to 1815 one of trial and anxiety for the Young Republic? Do not forget these dates.
4. Why did the French Revolutionists maintain that we should aid them in their war with England? What did Washington think of aiding them? Was he right or wrong? Give reasons for your answer.
5. What difficulties did we have with England? Why was Jay's treaty unsatisfactory to a large part of the American people? Do you like it or not? Give reasons for your answer.
6. Review the origin of the Federalist and the Anti-Federalist parties. What were these parties now called? What was the principal difference between them?
7. How did the French indicate their anger about the Jay treaty? Explain clearly the "X Y Z Papers." What recalled France from her insolent attitude toward the Americans? At this juncture John Adams, our second President, was in office. He served one term, 1797–1801.

---

[1] John Marshall was a great American and left his impress upon the government as few men have done. His personal appearance was striking. He was tall and slender, with black hair and small eyes. Simple in dress and modest in manner, his warm heart won the truest friendship of those who knew him. With rare grasp of mind and greatness of purpose, he labored to make the Union strong.

8. What facts led the Federalists to pass the Alien and Sedition laws? What were these laws? What were the Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions? Mark them well. They were a significant and dangerous step toward the nullification and secession movements of later years.
9. What kind of man was Chief Justice Marshall? Memorize the quotation which well indicates the work of this remarkable man, the greatest chief justice we have ever had.
10. If you will read Martineau's Peasant and Prince you will have clear ideas about the leading facts of the French Revolution.

SETTLEMENT OF THE MISSISSIPPI VALLEY

204. Thomas Jefferson, the Democratic-Republican Leader, becomes President.[1]—Before beginning to discuss the settlement of the Mississippi valley let us consider for a moment a statesman whose greatest act was the purchase of Louisiana, a large part of this valley. That statesman was Thomas Jefferson, of Virginia, who became the third President (March 4, 1801).[2] Up to that time the national government had been under the control of the Federalists, and many people believed that the election of the Democratic-Republican President would lead to the country's ruin. In this, of course, they were greatly in error, for Jefferson, as President, moved slowly in changing the policy of the government, and did many things to make the general government stronger than it had been before.

---

[1] Thomas Jefferson, third President of the United States (1801–1809), was born at Shadwell, Virginia, in 1743 and died at Monticello, Virginia, July 4, 1826. At seventeen years of age he entered the College of William and Mary, where he was an earnest student. He afterward became one of the most learned men of his times, being known as the "Sage of Monticello." He was also a daring horseman and an excellent violinist. After graduating from college he studied law and soon exercised a large influence over the politics of his State and his country. He was elected a member of the Continental Congress and, as chairman of the committee to draft the Declaration of Independence, wrote practically all of that remarkable document. At the end of his Presidential term of office he retired to his beautiful home, Monticello, where he spent the remaining years of his life.

[2] The Presidential election for a successor to John Adams caused much bitter feeling between the two political parties. The Federalists cast their votes for John Adams and C. C. Pinckney; the Republicans, for Thomas Jefferson and Aaron Burr. As the two latter each received seventy-three electoral votes, neither was elected, and the election was thrown into the House of Representatives, which, according to the Constitution, was to choose one of them for President. The contest was prolonged and exciting, but ended, as above stated, in the choice of Jefferson as President. Burr became Vice-President. This unfortunate contest resulted in the Twelfth Amendment to the Constitution, in accordance with which the Presidential electors must vote separately for President and for Vice-President.

205. Jefferson's "Republican Simplicity."—During the eight years of his Presidency Jefferson wielded a large personal influence over the people. Form and ceremony were distasteful to him. He believed the President should be simple in dress and manner and mingle freely with the people. In his "red waistcoat, yarn stockings, and slippers down at the heel," he presented a striking contrast to the courtly appearance of Washington.

SCHOOL-HOUSE WHERE THOMAS JEFFERSON RECEIVED HIS EARLY EDUCATION.

On the day of his inauguration he went on foot to the Capitol, in his ordinary dress, escorted by a number of his political friends.[1] It became his custom, when visiting the Capitol, to ride on a horse, which he tied with his own hands before entering. He did not hold weekly receptions, but he entertained hospitably and allowed persons wishing to see him to call at any time. Though the Federalists did not be-

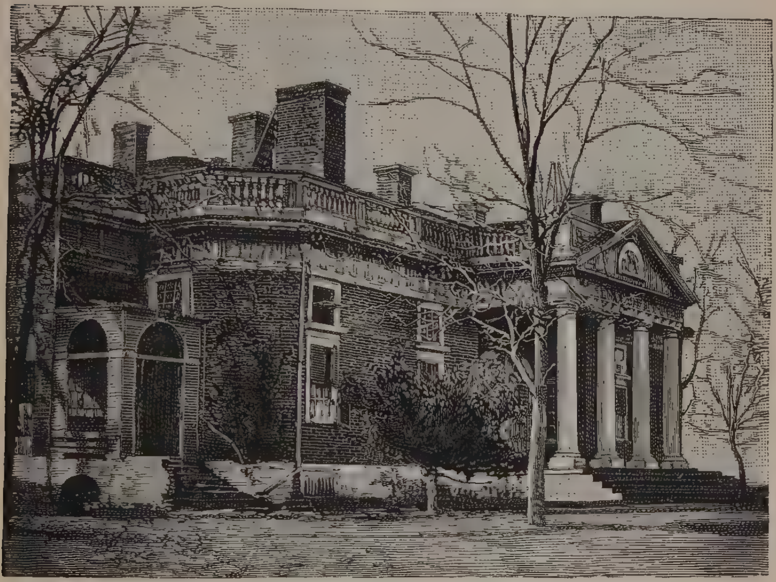
Jefferson the idol of the masses.

---

[1] Henry Adams, in Vol. I., pp. 190, 191, of his History of the United States, denies the truth of the story that on the day of his inauguration "Jefferson rode on horseback to the Capitol and, after hitching his horse to the palings, went in to take his oath."

lieve it best for men of all classes and conditions to vote, Jefferson, because of his great faith in the people, was an advocate of universal manhood suffrage. We need not be surprised, then, to learn that he became the idol of the masses.

206. Pioneers in the Mississippi Valley before the Revolution.—We have seen how Boone, Clarke, Sevier, and Robertson were leaders among the pioneers who went from Virginia and the Carolinas across the mountains before the Revolution and made settlements in Kentucky and Tennessee. Their only roads were the forest-trail and the river; their only means of travel and transportation the pack-horse and the canoe. Daring and full of the spirit of adventure, they relied quite as much upon the rifle as upon the axe and the hoe. Leading their pack-horses along the rough mountain pathways, they built log huts for dwellings, and with their rude tillage raised a few vegetables and a little corn for food.



MONTICELLO, THE HOME OF JEFFERSON.

The pack-horse and the forest-trail.

The cabin and its furniture.

207. Life in the Backwoods of Kentucky and Tennessee in Pioneer Days.—Often the pioneer's cabin was built of rough logs and had only one room, with a ladder reaching to a loft above, where the children slept. Articles of clothing hung upon pegs that were thrust into the sides of the house. A rough piece of board resting upon four wooden legs served as a table, three-legged stools were used as chairs, and wooden bowls as dishes. Life was everywhere plain and simple, and society democratic. Land was plentiful, and every head of a household had his own farm, usually of about four hundred acres.

THOMAS JEFFERSON.

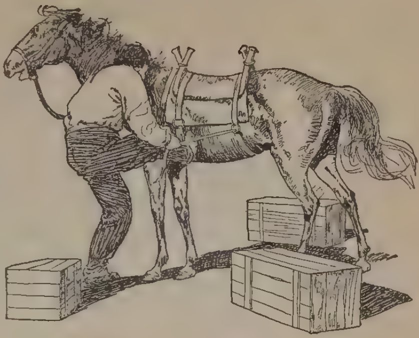
The settler.

Amusements.

The settler relied upon his rifle for meat. He dressed much like an Indian, often appearing in a fur cap, a fringed hunting-shirt of buck-skin, and moccasins and leggings made of the skins of wild animals. Amusements took a practical turn, the pioneers making them a pleasurable means of getting their work done. Hence, log-rollings, corn-huskings, and quiltings were common. After the work was out of the way the guests sat down at a table loaded with an abundance of such coarse foods as the backwoods afforded and such beverages as rum and whiskey. Then followed dancing, wrestling, racing, and various other sports calling for strength and skill.

Westward emigration.

208. The Flatboat and the Ohio River.—Soon after the ordinance of 1787 was adopted, and the fertile region lying between the Ohio and the Mississippi was opened for settlement, population began to stream westward. Yankees from New England, Scotch from New York, and Germans from Pennsylvania formed the bulk of this second emigration to the West. This wave of



A PACK-HORSE.

migration was greatly accelerated by the use of the flatboat, which could be employed as soon as the Ohio River was reached. By means of the flatboat the settler could carry many more goods than with the pack-horse. He could also travel much more rapidly, especially when going with the current. For this reason it was natural that this westward movement should follow the lines of the Ohio and the streams flowing into it from the north. Along their banks such towns as Marietta, Cincinnati, and Louisville rapidly sprang up.

209. Twofold Use of Rivers.—The rivers were valuable, not only for bringing the new settlers to their homes, but also as highways for their trade. The settlers could not profitably carry their bulky produce, such as corn-meal, flour, ham, and bacon, on pack-horses over the mountains to eastern business centres; but they could easily float their produce on rafts or flatboats down the currents of the Ohio and Mississippi Rivers to New Orleans. There, instead of attempting the slow and laborious return against the current, they disposed of their cargoes and sold their boats as lumber.

A HAND CORN-MILL.

The goods received in exchange were put aboard

A SWEEP-MILL.

vessels sailing for Baltimore or some other Atlantic port, and from there taken over the mountains to the Ohio valley. Several months were required to make this roundabout trip. But this circuitous route was the only one by which the Westerners could get such home comforts as clothing, furniture, and other manufactured products. As the Mississippi was their outlet into the world, their prosperity depended upon its free use for navigation.

The roundabout trip the settler must make in trading.

210. Napoleon's Scheme to Plant Colonies in the Mississippi Valley.—By the treaty of 1763 France had given up to Spain all claim to the Mississippi valley lying west of the river. The dreams of La Salle for establishing a New France in America had failed to be realized. But by 1800 Napoleon, who had become the all-powerful ruler of France, conceived a similar and equally brilliant plan. He determined to secure Louisiana—which included all the country

BREAKING FLAX.

from the Mississippi to the Rockies between Texas and Canada—and to people it with French colonists. New France in America would thus be revived, and the American Union would be hemmed in between the Mississippi and the Atlantic.

211. France Regains Louisiana from Spain (1800).—Napoleon forced Spain to cede Louisiana to France, and thus carried out the first part of his plan. He next sent an army to subdue the island of San Domingo. His purpose was to make this island a base for his extensive operations in the Mississippi valley. But in this attempt he met a mighty opposition. Toussaint L'Ouverture, a native black general, fought the French troops with desperate heroism. Although he was taken prisoner, yellow fever finished the work which he had begun. Many thousand French soldiers perished, and the island was not subdued. The army intended for the support of the colonists in Louisiana never reached New Orleans. War between France and England was again about to break out, and Napoleon was too busy in Europe to think of colonizing America.

AN OHIO RIVER FLATBOAT.

French army for Louisiana detained at San Domingo.

212. Alarm in the United States.—When the Americans found that Louisiana had again passed into the hands of France they were alarmed. It was bad enough to have the territory colonized by feeble Spain. It was far worse to have for a neighbor a dangerous rival like France. This feeling was especially prevalent among the settlers west of the Alleghanies. Their alarm was increased when they learned that the Spanish authorities at New Orleans had refused to let them float their products to that town and there reship them. Closing the Mississippi to their trade meant their commercial ruin. Their indignation was at a white heat and they talked loudly of war. They urged Jefferson to get control of the island on which New Orleans stood, and of the territory including the east bank of the river to its mouth and extending some distance eastward. The free navigation of the Mississippi would thus be assured.

The indignant Westerners talk of war with Spain.

213. The United States Purchases Louisiana (1803).—President Jefferson therefore sent Monroe over to France as special envoy to aid Livingston, the American minister, in securing West Florida and New Orleans. It was an opportune time for the Americans. As Napoleon was greatly in need of money for his war with England, he was willing to sell much more territory than the envoys were instructed to buy. The result was that we purchased from France in 1803, for $15,000,000, the immense Louisiana territory, a larger area than the United States of that day contained.[1] By this purchase Jefferson was taking much greater liberties with the Constitution than the Federalists had ever done. His action was directly contrary to the teachings of his party. He realized this, but the purchase was so plainly for the interests of the people that he felt justified in making it.

The purchase proved to be the greatest act of his administration and had four important results: (1) It kept France from planting colonies which would be our near neighbors; (2) it prevented England from getting possession of the territory by treaty with France; (3) it gave us the control of the Mississippi River; (4) it added much to the strength of the national government.

Results of the purchase.

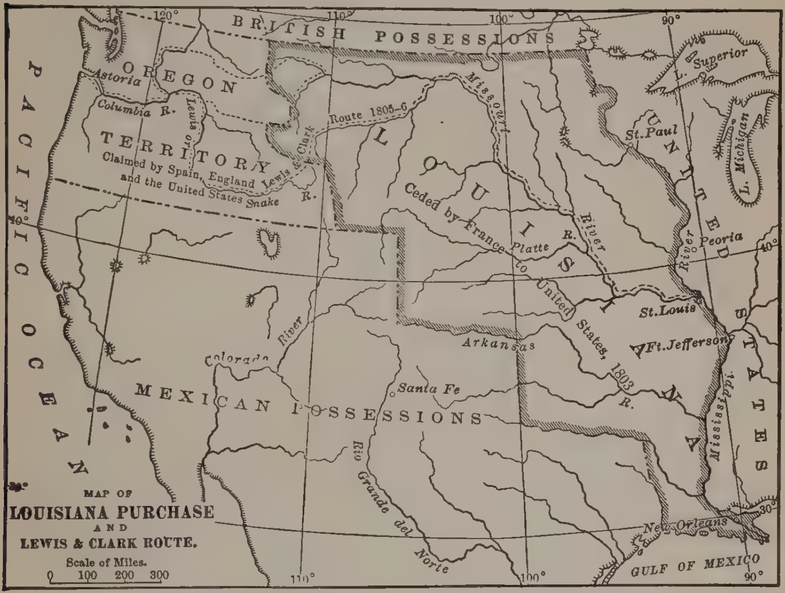
---

[1] Before 1803 the area of the United States was 827,844 square miles. The Louisiana purchase added 1,171,931 square miles to this area.

EARLY SETTLERS CROSSING THE PLAINS.

Singularly enough, Jefferson, the writer of the Kentucky Resolutions, boldly did that for which the Constitution made no express provision. The Federalists declared the purchase to be unconstitutional, and many people opposed it on the ground that we already had territory enough. But the great majority, especially in the West, warmly applauded Jefferson's course.

Jefferson's bold action.



MAP OF LOUISIANA PURCHASE AND LEWIS & CLARK ROUTE.

214. Lewis and Clark's Expedition[1] through the Louisiana Territory to the Pacific (1804–1806.)—Previous to the purchase of Louisiana, Jefferson sent to Congress a message recommending that an exploring party be sent to the Pacific Ocean. Accordingly a party of thirty men under Lewis and Clark started from St. Louis in 1804 and travelled in boats to the head-waters of the Missouri, nearly three thousand miles from its mouth. Here they procured horses from some Indians, made their way over the mountains, and again taking to boats, floated down the Columbia River to the Pacific. After nearly two years and a half, the party returned with a most interesting account of their experiences. Besides giving the American people some idea of the vast extent and great wealth of the Louisiana purchase, Lewis and Clark's expedition gave the United States a basis for claiming the Oregon Country some years later.

---

[1] In accordance with Jefferson's long cherished desire this expedition was designed *primarily* to explore the Missouri River to its source and then by the easiest route to reach and explore some river flowing into the Pacific Ocean.

Results of the expedition.

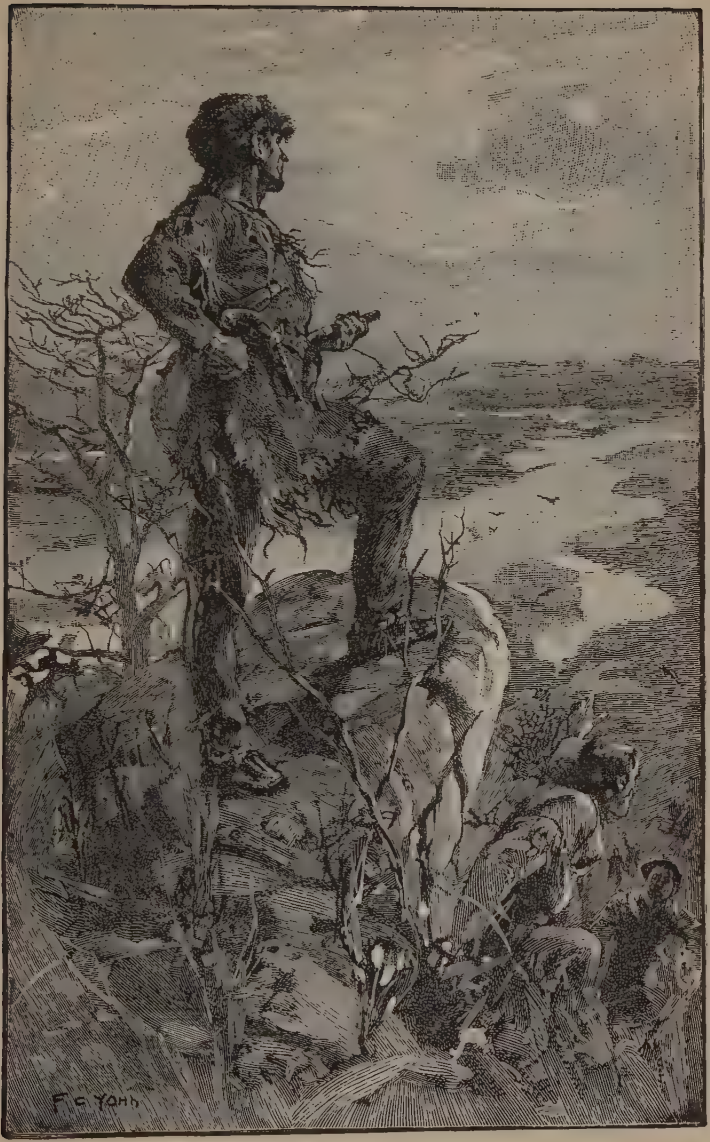
215. War with the Barbary States (1801–1815).—In the year 1801 the attention of the American people was suddenly drawn toward the East. The Barbary States included the petty Moorish powers of Morocco, Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, on the northern coast of Africa. For some time their pirates had been seriously disturbing American commerce in the Mediterranean. They captured and destroyed our vessels, confiscated the cargoes, and made slaves of the crews. In many cases large sums were paid to ransom Americans from slavery.

Like the various nations of Europe, the United States had been protecting her commerce by paying tribute to these Barbary States. But the pirates grew continually more aggressive. Tripoli became so insolent that finally the United States declared war against that country (1802). By 1805 Tripoli was forced by our navy to make peace and to stop interfering with our commerce. For some years the Barbary pirates did not interfere with American vessels, but it was not till 1815 that their attacks were entirely suppressed. The war with these states had two good results: (1) It forced Jefferson to increase the navy; (2) it was a training school by which our officers and seamen greatly profited in the War of 1812.

War with Tripoli.

Results of war with the Barbary States.

216. Fulton's Steamboat and River Navigation.—The war with the Barbary States brought the young republic into a more prominent position in the eyes of Europe, and showed that the American spirit would have to be reckoned with. But, important as the results were, they sank into comparative insignificance when placed beside an event



LEWIS'S FIRST GLIMPSE OF THE ROCKIES.

(Lewis and Clark Expedition, 1804.)

which, at the time, attracted no special attention. In the year 1807 Robert Fulton, after many trials and difficulties, succeeded in applying steam to boats as a motive power. The outcome of his efforts was the steamboat *Clermont*, a clumsy affair that people ridiculed by calling it "Fulton's Folly." On the day advertised for its trial trip from New York, a large crowd gathered on the river side, expecting to witness a failure. When the boat slowly moved off they began to jeer, but when finally the success of the experiment was no longer in doubt they were equally hearty in their applause. The *Clermont* steamed up the Hudson from New York to Albany, 150 miles, at the rate of nearly five miles an hour. At once the boat became a wonder to the people, and they came many miles to see it.

The 'Clermont."

Four years later (1811) the first steamboat on Western rivers was launched on the Ohio at Pittsburg. As this strange-looking object passed down the Ohio at what was then regarded as wonderful speed, the people on the river-banks were filled with awe and fear. The flying sparks, especially at night, and the unusual noise of the wheels, made some of the more ignorant onlookers believe the end of the world was near. This boat was soon followed by others, and the great network of rivers became thick with steam-driven craft, defying wind and current. The steamboat was a great advance upon the flatboat. Western settlers could now more easily and cheaply reach the fertile land in the great valley and send their produce to good markets. The steamboat gave a fresh impulse to Western migration also. Population increased and many new settlements sprang up.

Use of the steamboat on Western rivers.

217. Burr's Conspiracy.—While holding the office of Vice-President, Aaron Burr—a brilliant and villainous man—killed Alexander Hamilton in a duel, because Hamilton had prevented him from being made President of the United States, and later from being elected Governor of New York. Having failed to satisfy his political ambition in the East, Burr got together soldiers and adventurers from the Western States, and sailed down the Ohio and the Mississippi to carry out some schemes not yet fully understood. It is thought that his plan was to establish a personal government in the Southwest, possibly including the Spanish possessions in Mexico. In due time he was taken and tried for treason, but was acquitted for lack of evidence. He died many years later, disgraced by his own acts and despised by the American people.

TO THE PUPIL

1. How did Jefferson illustrate his republican simplicity? Compare his ideas of formality with those of Washington. Why would the Federalists naturally favor pomp and ceremony on the part of the President?
2. Prepare to write five minutes about any one of the following Western leaders: Boone, Clark, Sevier, and Robertson. Describe the life of the pioneer settlers.
3. What advantages had the flatboat over the pack-horse? What were the two uses of rivers? With your map before you, outline the roundabout trip the Western settler had to make in trading.
4. Napoleon is one of the most interesting men in all history. Can you not look up some facts about his life and his plans of conquest? Any short French History will give you all you need. Perhaps after you have read such a brief sketch you will wish to read what you can find about the great general in Henry Adams's History of the United States.
5. What was Napoleon's scheme to plant colonies in the Mississippi valley? Compare this scheme with La Salle's. In this connection review La Salle's work. In what respect was La Salle like Napoleon?
6. What country owned Louisiana at this time? What had the island of San Domingo and the black general Toussaint L'Ouverture to do with Napoleon's scheme for colonizing the Mississippi valley? Why did the cession of Louisiana to France alarm the people of the United States?
7. What steps did Jefferson take which finally led to the purchase of Louisiana? What were the results of this purchase?
8. Do not fail to get a clear idea of the territory that was included in Louisiana. How many States like your own did its area equal?
9. How did the steamboat aid Western migration?
10. Find out what you can about Burr's relations with Hamilton. Compare the two men. What was Burr's Conspiracy?

11. In connection with the study of Aaron Burr, read Hale's Man Without a Country. The chapter in Shaler's History of the United States, Vol. I., on the Mississippi valley, is worth careful reading.

THE WAR OF 1812, OR THE SECOND WAR OF INDEPENDENCE

218. **England Claims the Right to Search American Vessels and Impress American Seamen.**—England still continued to search our vessels and to impress into her service American seamen. She claimed that English seamen, having once been English subjects, always remained such; or, as the saying ran, "Once an Englishman, always an Englishman." On the other hand, our government claimed that an English-born subject could become an American by naturalization.

"Once an Englishman, always an Englishman."

There was doubtless cause for annoyance on both sides. Many English seamen, on reaching American ports, easily procured fraudulent naturalization papers, and entered the American service. As a result, an English captain was often embarrassed to find that, after making a port and visiting the town, he had no crew with which to put to sea again. And why was American service preferred? Because better treatment and higher pay were received on American vessels.

Fraudulent naturalization.

The commanders of English war-ships therefore insisted upon searching our vessels and taking off American seamen on the charge that they were deserters. English cruisers hovered about the more important American ports, and in their search for seamen boarded every vessel entering or leaving the harbor. Before the War of 1812 began nine hundred American vessels had been searched, and more than 4,000 Americans had been impressed into the English service.

These insults and outrages reached their most irritating stage in the attack made on the frigate *Chesapeake* by the British man-of-war *Leopard*, off the coast of Virginia. The English captain made a demand for some English deserters who, he claimed, were on the American frigate. When the American commander protested, the Englishman fired a broadside, killing or wounding twenty-one of the American crew. The *Chesapeake*, not being in a condition to make resistance, surrendered. She was boarded, and four of her crew were arrested for deserters and taken on board the *Leopard*. One of these was afterward hanged as a deserter and the other three, who were Americans, were released.

The "Leopard" fires upon the "Chesapeake."

The people were deeply excited, and in some quarters there was a clamor for war. But as the country was ill prepared for war, Jefferson could go no further than to enter a protest, and warn English men-of-war to leave American waters. In return, the British Government made a tardy and half-hearted apology, but declared its purpose to continue the impressment of seamen.

Results.

219. England and France Greatly Injure American Commerce (1806–1807).—England and France, now at war, tried to starve each other into submission. Each country, in her efforts to injure the other's trade, seriously crippled American commerce. During the early years of the war our vessels had done much of the carrying trade of the world, and our merchants had been growing rich. But in 1806[1] and 1807 England issued her "Orders in Council," which forbade neutral vessels to trade with France or her allies. Napoleon retaliated by issuing his "Decrees," which placed a prohibition upon all neutral trade with England. As nearly all American commerce was with England, France, and their respective allies, these restrictions threatened it with ruin. If an American vessel was bound for an English port she was liable to be seized by the French. If she risked a voyage to a French or other Continental port she was liable to be seized by an English man-of-war. Thus our

England's "Orders in Council" and Napoleon's "Decrees."

---

[1] "Orders in Council," issued in England in 1806, declared that all the ports between Brest and the Elbe were in a state of blockade. In 1807 a similar order declared all ports blockaded from which the British flag was excluded, and forbade all vessels to trade with France or any of her allies.

merchantmen were between two fires. They were pretty certain not to escape both.

220. Jefferson's Peace Policy and the Embargo (1807).—With all his greatness, Jefferson was not a model executive in time of serious foreign difficulties demanding firm and vigorous measures. He abhorred war and believed that the same results could be accomplished by peaceful means. He thought that by refusing to trade with England and France he could force them to a reasonable and just treatment of the United States. As an expression of his peace policy, he secured the passage of the Embargo Act (December, 1807). This prohibited all American vessels from leaving the United States for foreign ports and foreign vessels from taking cargoes out of American ports.

Disastrous results of the Embargo, and its repeal.

Jefferson thought that France and England stood in such need of our trade that they would soon come to terms when deprived of it. But they could do without our trade much better than we could do without theirs. Our ships rotted at the wharves. Our commerce was destroyed. New York and New England especially suffered, and business distress became very severe. A few hot-headed men in the Eastern States suggested withdrawing from the Union.[1] The farmers and planters also suffered greatly because they could not export their produce. Many of the Virginia planters, whose principal source of wealth was tobacco, were nearly ruined.

Bitter dissatisfaction leads to the repeal of the Embargo.

Dissatisfaction was so bitter that Jefferson, after considerable urging, consented to the repeal of the Embargo after a trial of fourteen months. The Non-intercourse Act, allowing American vessels to open trade with all the world except France and England, took the place of the Embargo (1809).[2]

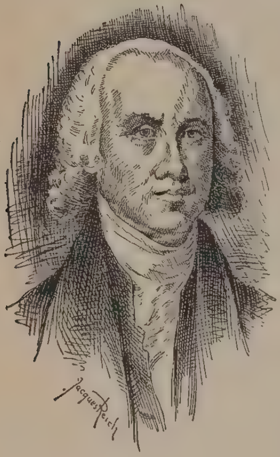
---

[1] When New England commerce was ruined, the merchants of that part of the country invested their money in manufacturing.

[2] By act of Congress the Embargo was removed on March 4, the day when Jefferson's term of office expired and Madison succeeded him as President. James

221. Tecumseh's Conspiracy (1811).—From these commercial difficulties we may now turn our attention to Indian troubles, supposed to be incited by England. The rapid settlement north of the Ohio in the early part of the century made the Indians of that region restless and dissatisfied. General Harrison, who had been appointed Governor of Indiana Territory, bought from some of the tribes a tract of land on the Wabash River. Tecumseh, an able Indian chief, objected to the sale. A few tribes, he said, had no right to sell land belonging to the whole Indian race. It is quite likely that he was encouraged by the English in his unfriendly feelings against the Americans, for it is thought that the English supplied the Indians of the Northwest with arms and ammunition. Tecumseh's plan was similar to that of Pontiac. It was to unite the Southern and Northwestern Indians in one great conspiracy, in order to drive the whites back from the frontiers and make the Ohio River a permanent boundary between the red race and the whites.

Tecumseh and his plans.


JAMES MADISON.

When General Harrison became aware of Tecumseh's purpose, he marched with a body of troops against the Indian town on the Tippecanoe River, in Indiana. A battle

Madison, fourth President of the United States (1809–1817), was born in King George County, Virginia, in 1751, and died in 1836. After he was graduated from Princeton, at twenty-one years of age, he studied law. Few men of his time did so much to bring about the Federal convention of 1787. He was one of the ablest advocates of the Constitution, and was the author of many of its fundamental features. He was associated with Hamilton and Jay in writing the very able papers that appeared in the Federalist. After being Jefferson's Secretary of State, he was elected President. Like Jefferson, Madison was a man of scholarly attainments and constructive statesmanship, but was not adapted to the pressing emergencies that must be met by the President of the United States in time of war.

was fought in which the Indians were defeated. Their power between the Ohio and Mississippi was broken forever. It was at last decided that the Northwest Territory, so long in dispute between the English and the Indians on one side and the Americans on the other, was to remain in possession of the United States. Thus did a single battle dispose of Tecumseh's conspiracy. The troubles with England about commerce and the impressment of American seamen were much more serious.

Battle of Tippecanoe and its results.

222. Causes of the War of 1812; Political Parties.—Congress expressed a willingness to repeal the Non-intercourse Acts (May, 1810), provided France and England would revoke their decrees against American commerce. Napoleon, who had little regard for truth when it stood in the way of his ambition, then played a trick upon our government in the hope of bringing on war between the United States and England. He informed us that he would revoke his decrees, but at the same time he sent secret orders to the French Admiralty to continue seizing our vessels. When the French emperor made this promise, England was requested to do likewise. She, however, would not consent, because she knew that Napoleon was not acting in good faith. For a time American vessels were allowed to enter French ports without being seized. But when a goodly number were within reach, the French swooped down upon them and confiscated them and their cargoes.

Napoleon's trick.

England believed that Americans were favoring France, and therefore vexed and irritated them more than ever before. Her war-ships lay in wait along the entire eastern coast of the United States and captured many of our merchantmen. Bitterness toward England increased. It seems pretty clear that the United States had as much ground for going to war with the one country as with the other. But we were too weak to go to war with both of them, and the stronger of the two political parties, which had always sympathized with

Increasing trouble with England.

France, wished for war with England rather than with France.

Attitude of the two political parties toward war with England.

The Federalist party included most of the commercial classes and the wealthy business men of the country. They were strong in New England and were closely allied in trade with England. They believed that the war was needless and wicked. They asserted that in making it the United States was really strengthening Napoleon in his ambitious schemes in Europe. This was true. On the other hand, the Democratic-Republicans were largely made up of the agricultural classes in the South and West. The Westerners in particular cherished bitter memories of England's Indian policy during the Revolution, and were eager for a war with that country. The young leaders, Henry Clay, of Kentucky, and John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina, thought that such a war would result in the speedy conquering of Canada. Later on, as we shall see, the attempt to conquer Canada became a leading feature of the war.

War declared.

Finally, on June 18, 1812, war was declared, although New England hotly opposed it. This opposition led to great difficulty in securing the necessary loans for carrying on the war, because a large part of the money in the country was in the hands of New England business men, who refused to loan it to the government.

223. The British and the American Navies.—When the war began the United States was not prepared for it. The Democratic-Republicans had never favored a navy. Moreover, Jefferson had been so bent on paying off the national debt that he had used all his influence against building a strong navy. The land forces were without proper equipment, good discipline, or competent officers. England's navy contained about 1,000 vessels, many of them belonging to the largest and most powerful class. It was greater than the combined navies of the rest of the world. To match this, the United States navy contained only twelve war-vessels, none of them large, but all well built and the best of their class. There was small hope that this little navy could do much when fighting against the "Mistress of the Seas." But as soon as war was declared, the American vessels gallantly started out in search of the enemy.

224. Fight Between the Constitution and the Guerrière (1812).—The first sea fight of importance was between the *Constitution*, commanded by Captain Isaac Hull, and the English man-of-war *Guerrière*, which were thought to be about equal in fighting strength. Within a half-hour the Americans won a splendid victory. They thoroughly disabled the English vessel, so that she had to be destroyed where she lay at the end of the fight. The *Constitution* was practically unharmed, and lost in killed and wounded only fourteen men. The *Guerrière* lost one hundred. This naval duel took place (August 19, 1812) in less than three months after war was declared. By reason of this and later victories, the people afterward proudly named the *Constitution* "Old Ironsides."

225. Superiority of Americans in Naval Battles.—In twenty years of fighting with France, England had lost only five vessels. In about six months of fighting in the War of 1812 she lost every one of the six vessels that fought with the Americans. Europe was amazed. England was, of course, chagrined; but Americans were carried away with enthusiasm. Their gallantry on the sea showed that they had lost none of the national spirit shown by them in the days of the Revolution. The British officers and seamen were so accustomed to winning victories that they had become careless in their training and discipline. The marvellous success of the Americans was due to better seamanship, more accurate gunnery, and the superior construction of their vessels.

English war-vessels blockade our coast.

But our victories did not prevent the immense English navy from blockading our coast. Smarting under repeated defeats when she had counted on certain victory, England transferred a good part of her navy to American waters. Whenever one of our war-vessels entered a harbor, several British vessels hovered near to prevent her escaping to sea again. As a consequence, during the last half of the war the larger American vessels, shut in by this blockade, could not engage in fighting. But American privateers inflicted great loss on English commerce. During the war about 2,500 British merchant vessels were captured by American privateers. These privateers were New England vessels that were prevented by war from engaging in commerce. But while we were successful on the sea, we were not so successful on land.

Privateers.

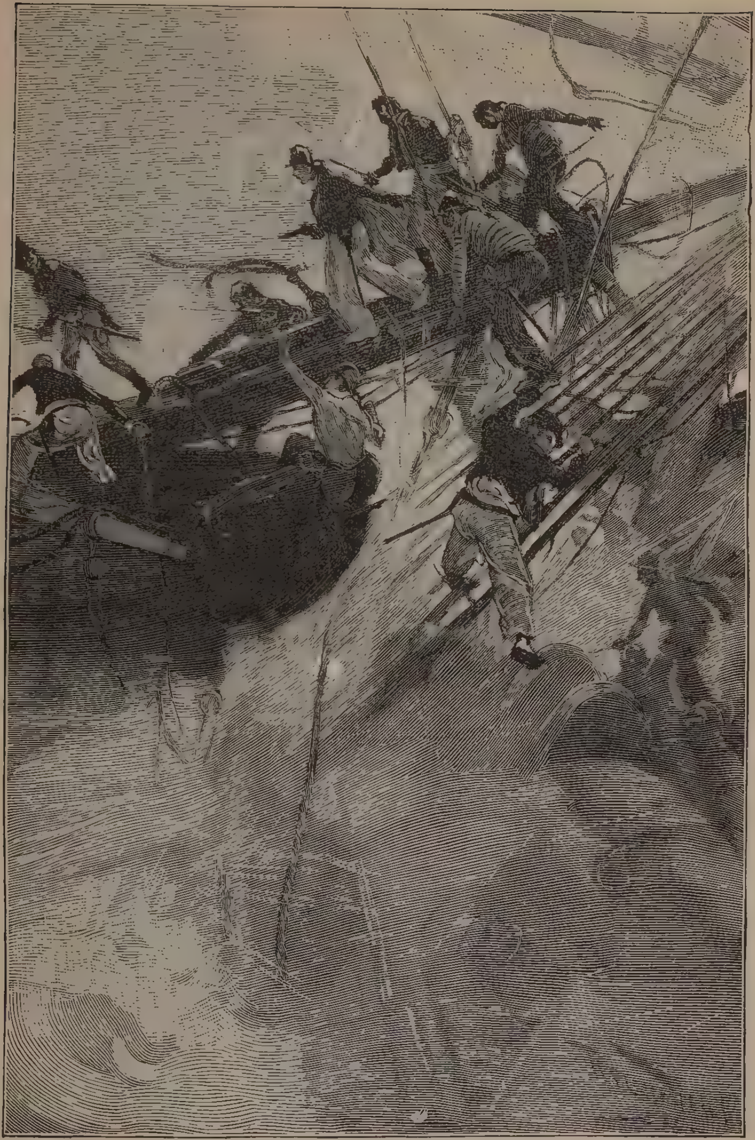
226. War in the Northwest (1812-1813).—It will be remembered that one of the leading purposes of the war (see par. 222) was to invade and conquer Canada. With this aim in view General William Hull started from Detroit into Canada. He was soon driven back and forced to surrender at Detroit with his entire force (August 16, 1812).[1] A little later the English captured Fort Dearborn, now Chicago. Instead of our securing Canada it looked very much as if the British would get control of all the territory north of the Ohio. To prevent this, General Harrison was sent, early in the winter of 1813, to drive the British troops out of Detroit, but his advance force was obliged to surrender at the River Raisin, where the Indians cruelly massacred the wounded prisoners.

227. Perry Wins a Brilliant Victory on Lake Erie (September 10, 1813).—Before the English could come into effective control of the Northwest, it was necessary for them to command Lake Erie. To prevent this, Captain Oliver H. Perry, a naval officer twenty-eight years old, was sent there to build and man a fleet. With remarkable energy and perseverance he cut down trees, constructed vessels of green timber, and got together men whom he trained for the severe struggle they were to engage in. Some of his best men were Rhode Island seamen and Kentucky riflemen.

Perry's remarkable energy.

---

[1] People were indignant at Hull for his surrender and accused him of cowardice. Although he was tried by court-martial and sentenced to be shot, the sentence was never executed. It now seems clear that General Hull was an innocent man.



AMERICAN SEAMEN BOARDING THE FROLIC.

The engagement between the Wasp and the Frolic—War of 1812.

On September 10, 1813, the British fleet, commanded by Captain Barclay, a veteran officer, hove in sight. There was little difference in the strength of the two fleets. The British had six vessels with sixty-three guns, and the Americans had nine vessels with fifty-four guns; but while the enemy's vessels were larger, their guns were smaller. By concentrating their fire upon Perry's flagship, *Lawrence*, the British completely disabled her. Only Perry and eight of his men were left unharmed. It was a supreme moment. Most men would have surrendered. He boldly entered a rowboat and, standing up, flag in hand, rowed straight for the *Niagara*, another vessel of his fleet. Although the British directed their fire upon the little boat, Perry reached the *Niagara* without injury. He then renewed the battle with great vigor, and in fifteen minutes compelled the English captain to strike his colors.

His bravery.

This was the first time in history that an entire English fleet was captured. It was a brilliant victory. Taking out of his pocket an old letter, Perry wrote on the back of it his celebrated dispatch to General Harrison: "We have met the enemy and they are ours." General Harrison at once attacked and defeated the land forces at the Thames River (October 5, 1813). These two victories put the Americans in entire control of Lake Erie and saved the Northwest.

228. Threefold Attack of the British in 1814.—In the Northwest neither side had made any decided gain when invading the other's territory. This was equally true of the fighting farther east, where the Americans failed at Niagara River,[1] and the English at Fort Erie. Having defeated Napoleon in Europe, England now had more soldiers and seamen for the war in the United States. Accordingly, she decided to invade American territory from the north, on the old Burgoyne route, and to enter the Mississippi

[1] Under the lead of General Scott and General Brown, the bloody battles of Chippawa and Lundy's Lane were fought and won just west of Niagara River, on Canadian soil. As the United States troops had to retreat across the Niagara River, these victories were of no immediate advantage.

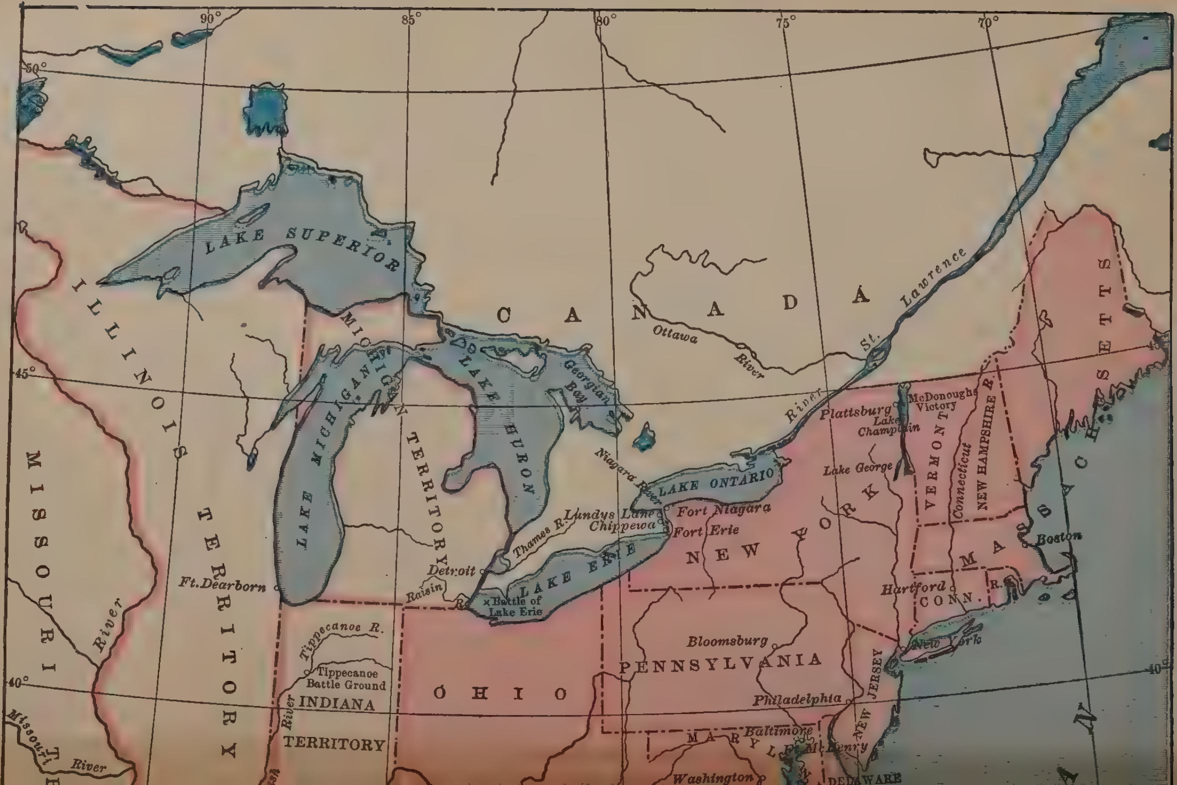
on the south and capture New Orleans. At the same time attacks were to be made at various points along the eastern coast, so as to keep the inhabitants in that quarter in a state of fear and doubt. By making this threefold attack, the English expected to prevent the Americans from concentrating at any point.

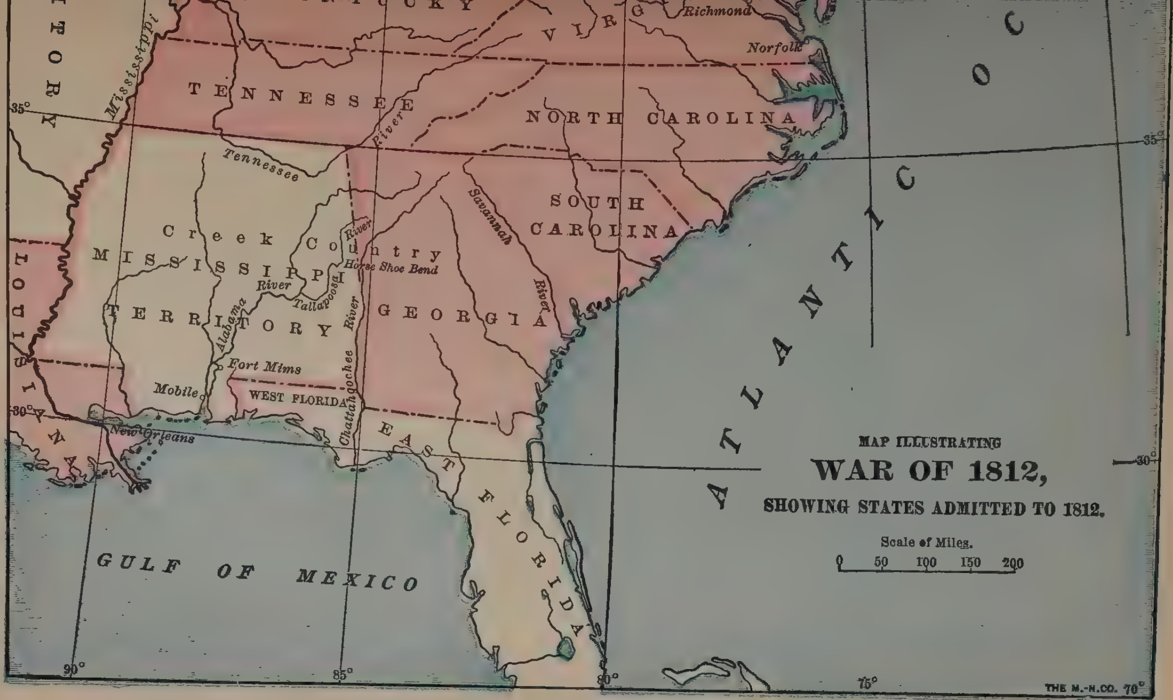
229. McDonough's Victory on Lake Champlain.—To ward off the attack from the north, the Americans had a squadron under Commodore McDonough on Lake Champlain, and a land force of 1,500 at Plattsburg on the lake shore. The English also had a fleet on the lake and an army of 14,000 on land. Although the English fleet was stronger in men and guns, McDonough, in about two hours, gained a decided victory, and captured all the larger vessels belonging to the English fleet. As soon as the news of the battle reached land, the English army beat a hasty retreat (September 11, 1814). This invasion, in its purpose and failure, recalls that of Burgoyne in 1777.

230. The British Capture Washington and Attack Baltimore (1814).—In August (1814) a British fleet sailed into Chesapeake Bay and landed an army which marched against Washington. They reached Bladensburg, six or seven miles from Washington, before they met with any opposition. Here General Winder, an incompetent commander, with a body of Americans composed largely of untrained and ill-supplied militia, made a short, feeble resistance and fled in confusion. The British then marched into Washington, almost capturing President Madison himself. Here they disgraced their victory by destroying the Capitol and other government buildings. After a few days they sailed for Baltimore, where they were bravely repulsed, with the loss of General Ross, their commander.[1]

---

[1] When the British were marching against Washington, they seized and carried off a friend of Francis S. Key. As soon as Key heard of the capture he took steps to secure the release of the prisoner. President Madison gave assistance by ordering that a vessel be placed at the disposal of Key. General Ross consented to the release of Key's friend, but insisted that Key should be detained until after the attack upon Baltimore. During the night of attack Key could see, by the glare of the firing guns, the "Star-Spangled Banner" waving over Fort McHenry. But


90°
85°
80°
75°
70°
50°
45°
40°
CANADA
LAKE SUPERIOR
LAKE MICHIGAN
LAKE HURON
Georgian Bay
LAKE ONTARIO
LAKE ERIE
MICHIGAN TERRITORY
ILLINOIS TERRITORY
MISSOURI TERRITORY
INDIANA TERRITORY
OHIO
PENNSYLVANIA
NEW YORK
VERMONT
NEW HAMPSHIRE
MASSACHUSETTS
CONN.
R.
NEW JERSEY
MARYLAND
DELAWARE
Ottawa River
St. Lawrence River
Connecticut R.
Niagara River
Thames R.
Tippecanoe R.
Tippecanoe Battle Ground
Missouri River
River
Raisin R.
Detroit
Ft. Dearborn
x Battle of Lake Erie
Lundys Lane
Chippewa
Fort Niagara
Fort Erie
Plattsburg
McDonoughs Victory
Lake Champlain
Lake George
Boston
Hartford
New York
Bloomsburg
Philadelphia
Baltimore
Ft. McHenry
Washington



MAP ILLUSTRATING

WAR OF 1812,

SHOWING STATES ADMITTED TO 1812.

The British fleet visited many points of the Virginia and Carolina coast, burning bridges, farm-houses and villages, and carrying off crops, stocks, and slaves belonging to the inhabitants. They also maintained a strict blockade all along the coast from Maine to Georgia.

231. War with the Creek Indians (1814).—Tecumseh, when planning his conspiracy in the Northwest, had aroused against the Americans the powerful Creek Indians, occupying territory now included in Georgia and Alabama. Like the Indians north of the Ohio, they saw the whites getting control of their hunting-grounds and killing their game. Believing this time of war to be a favorable opportunity for getting back their lands, the Creeks planned an attack. They captured Fort Mimms, near Mobile, and cruelly slaughtered some 400 men, women, and children in the garrison (summer of 1813). Andrew Jackson, with men from Tennessee, Georgia, and Mississippi, marched against the Creeks, and, after defeating them several times, won a decisive victory over them at Horseshoe Bend, on the Tallapoosa River, in eastern Alabama (March, 1814). This battle so broke the power of the Creeks that they were obliged to abandon much of their territory and go farther west.

232. Battle of New Orleans (1815).—The British wished to get possession of New Orleans, in order to control the trade of the Mississippi and the territory of Louisiana after the close of the war. As their success here would give them a great advantage over the Americans, they sent against New Orleans 12,000 veterans who had fought in Wellington's army.

Andrew Jackson's preparations.

The success of the expedition, which was in command of skilful generals, seemed well-nigh certain. But Andrew Jackson, who was put in command of the Americans at New Orleans, proved himself

---

toward morning, when the firing ceased, he was in an agony of suspense to learn whether or not our flag yet floated in triumph over the fort. After finding that the "flag was still there," he gave expression to his deep feeling in "The Star-Spangled Banner," a part of which he hastily penned on the back of a letter.

equal to the emergency. When he found that the enemy were close at hand, he began with unbounded energy to prepare for the defence of the city. After arming even free colored men and convicts, he could number only half as many men as the English.

But with his army strongly posted behind fortifications, he awaited the final assault, which was made January 8, 1815. The British gallantly advanced, but they were mowed down in hundreds by the terrible cannonade opposing them. It was chiefly an artillery battle, the main British column not arriving within fair musket range. The British lines could not advance in the face of such fearful slaughter. In twenty-five minutes they had lost their commander, General Pakenham, and 2,600 men killed and wounded, or more than one-fifth of their army. The Americans lost only twenty-one. Here, as in all the fighting on land and sea, the superiority of the American gunnery was noteworthy. In fact, throughout the war the Americans were unmistakably ahead of the English in intelligence and quickness of movement.

Bloody repulse of the British.

We more fully appreciate the telegraph and submarine cable when we learn that this battle, so terrible in loss of life, was fought two weeks after the treaty of peace had been agreed upon. Communication in those days was so slow that the news of Jackson's victory (January 8, 1815) did not reach Washington until February 4. News of the treaty of peace reached New York a week later. The battle, therefore, did not in any way affect this treaty. But it did revive the confidence of the American people in the military ability of their soldiery when under competent leadership.

Result of the battle.

233. The Hartford Convention (December, 1814–January, 1815).—From the outset New England Federalists had been much opposed to the war. As it progressed, their opposition became bitter. At first the government had not only appointed weak commanders, but all along it had poorly managed the finances. It had not protected the New England coasts from British attack,

New England's dissatisfaction.

and to New England merchants it had seemed indifferent about furnishing such protection. Commerce was practically ruined, and there was much business distress.

New England had bravely done its part in carrying on the war, Massachusetts having furnished much more than its share of men and money, but the Federalists in New England had no confidence in President Madison and his government. At length they called together the Hartford Convention, which met at Hartford, in December, 1814. All the meetings were secret, and the people throughout the country were greatly excited about the possible outcome. Democratic-Republicans openly charged the members with plotting to break up the Union and to form a separate government.

OLD STATE HOUSE, WHERE THE HARTFORD CONVENTION MET.

The people greatly excited.

As the proceedings were not published, nobody knows all that the Convention did. It did, however, take a bold and dangerous step toward the dissolution of the Union, by recommendiag that the proceeds of the national taxes, collected in each New England State, should be reserved by it to pay troops for its own defence. This recommendation was extremely unwise. It

What the Hartford Convention did.

sounded much like the Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions of 1798 and 1799. The Hartford Convention was a great political blunder. It killed the Federalist party.

234. Treaty of Peace and Results of the War (December 24, 1814).—The treaty of peace was agreed upon December 24, 1814. No mention was made of impressment of seamen and the unjust interference with our commerce by the English navy. But the war put a stop to both evils, and had, in addition, three results: (1) It showed the superiority of American seamanship; (2) it gave the United States a position of respect and honor among the nations of the world; (3) it led the Americans, who had been for so many years cut off from the manufactured goods of Europe, to build mills and factories for themselves and thus become more independent of European manufactures than ever before. Well may this war be called the Second War of Independence. In the Revolution Americans fought for independence of England; in the War of 1812 they fought for independence of Europe.

TO THE PUPIL

1. What complaints did we make against England about searching American vessels and impressing American seamen? What complaints did England enter against us?
2. How did England and France injure American commerce? What was Jefferson's purpose in securing the passage of the Embargo Act? What was the Embargo? How did it affect American commerce?
3. Why was there more commerce carried on in New England than in the South? Why was the Embargo Act repealed?
4. James Madison, our fourth President, was inaugurated March 4, 1809, and served two terms, 1809–1817. Name in order the three Presidents who preceded him.
5. What led to Tecumseh's conspiracy? What were the results of the battle of Tippecanoe? What had Tecumseh's conspiracy to do with our trouble with England?
6. What was Napoleon's trick, and how did its success lead to increasing trouble with England? Why did the Federalists oppose a war with England? Why did the Democratic-Republicans favor such a war?
7. Subject for debate: Resolved that in 1812 we should have gone to war with France rather than with England.

8. Why had we so small a navy in 1812? Compare it with the English navy at that time.
9. Give an account of the fight between the "Constitution" and the "Guerrière." How great was the success of the American navy in the first six months of the war? How do you account for this success?
10. What disasters fell upon our armies in the Northwest in 1812–13? What led to the battle of Lake Erie? Imagine yourself with Perry during the battle, and write to a friend, giving an account of your experiences. What were the results of Perry's victory?
1 What was the threefold plan of attack made by the British in 1814? Give the results of McDonough's victory on Lake Champlain.
12. What was the object of the British in trying to capture New Orleans? Give the results of the battle. In what ways were the Americans superior to the English in this and in other battles of the war?
13. Why were New England Federalists bitterly opposed to the Embargo? How was their dissatisfaction increased during the war? What recommendation did the Hartford Convention make? Compare this recommendation with the Kentucky and Virginia resolutions of 1798 and 1799. You observe that even in 1814 true national feeling was not strong and deep in the United States. Name three results of the war.
14. Learn well the story of The Star-Spangled Banner's origin and then memorize the poem. Read again and again Drake's American Flag and Holmes's Old Ironsides.

DEVELOPMENT WEST OF THE ALLEGHANIES

235. Purchase of Florida.—At the close of the Revolution Florida had passed into the hands of Spain. During the War of 1812 the Spaniards were in sympathy with the English, and allowed them to build forts in Florida and to arm the Seminole Indians living there. This unfriendly attitude of the Spaniards embittered the Southern States. Moreover, many slaves, escaping from Georgia and Alabama, fled into the swamps and morasses of Florida, and there found protection among the Seminole Indians, with whom they married and lived.

The Seminole Indians protect runaway slaves.

The slave-owners often followed in search of their slaves, and for years carried on a kind of border warfare. As Spain did not set matters right, General Andrew Jackson was sent down (1817) with a body of troops. Jackson acted with his usual decision and energy. He hanged two Indian chiefs, and two Englishmen whom he accused of inciting the Seminoles. He captured Pensacola and established a garrison there. These acts were open war against Spain, but trouble was avoided by our buying Florida. The purchase was made in 1819, for $5,000,000. The territory was more than twelve times the size of Connecticut.[1]

Jackson in Florida.

236. The Monroe[2] Doctrine (1823).—Having watched the United States win independence from England and then become strong and prosperous, Mexico and the other Spanish colonies in America rose in revolt against Spain. One after another they declared their independence and set up republics of their own. Spain was unable of herself to enforce authority, and looked for aid to the "Holy Alliance." This alliance had been formed in 1815, after the downfall of Napoleon, by Russia, Austria, and Prussia. Its purpose was to prevent the people of any European monarchy from overthrowing the government, as the French people had done during the French Revolution. From the American standpoint, if the great European powers should begin to interfere with the countries of America, they might, by obtaining a foothold here, endanger the welfare of the United States.

Spain and the "Holy Alliance."

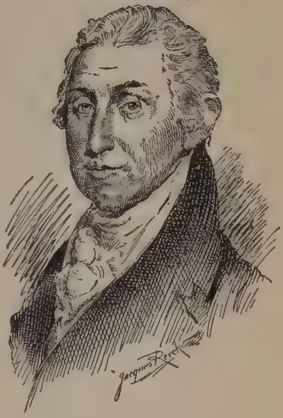
The experiment of twenty-five years of struggle between the United States on the one hand and England and France on the other had culminated in the War of 1812. We had thus learned the wisdom of keeping out of European entanglements. We had learned, also, the wisdom of managing our own affairs without the intervention of England, France, or any other European country. President Monroe, therefore, in a message to Congress at this time, declared (1) that we would take no part in European wars; (2) that we would not interfere with any European colonies already established in America; (3) but that any attempt on the part of a European nation to interfere with the independence of an American state would be regarded as an unfriendly act.[1] This statement of our position gave expression to the general American sentiment which has since become known as the "Monroe Doctrine."

---

[1] The area of Connecticut, being 4,990 or approximately 5,000 square miles, makes a very convenient unit of measurement. It will hereafter be so used in many cases.

[2] James Monroe, fifth President of the United States (1817–1825), was born in Westmoreland County, Virginia, in 1758, and died in 1831. Soon after his student life began at the College of William and Mary, he was called away to active service in the Revolution. He fought bravely at Trenton, Brandywine, Germantown, and Monmouth. He filled many high stations in his country's service, not only at home, where he was a member of the Continental Congress, and later of the Senate under the Constitution, but abroad, where he was minister to France, England, and Spain. After being Secretary of State under Madison, he was elected President. In all his public service he proved himself a patriotic and upright citizen.

The "Monroe Doctrine."



JAMES MONROE.

It was a strong position to take, but the valor of Perry on Lake Erie, of McDonough on Lake Champlain, of Jackson at New Orleans, and of the American sailors on the sea, had won the respect and admiration of Europe. The Holy Alliance wisely refrained from meddling with American affairs; a precedent was established; and the Monroe Doctrine has ever since been the settled policy of the United States.

Results of the "Monroe Doctrine."

237. The National Road.—The Monroe Doctrine practically settled the foreign policy of the United States; but there remained a question at home which appeared almost to defy solution. From early colonial times two obstacles

---

[1] We find a similar sentiment expressed in Washington's Farewell Address, from which the following is quoted: "The great rule of conduct for us in regard to foreign nations is, in extending our commercial relations, to have with them as little political connection as possible. . . . It is our true policy to steer clear of permanent alliances with any portion of the foreign world."

Two obstacles to westward migration.

had stood in the way of westward migration. These were the Indians and the natural barriers to travel and transportation. By the overthrow of Tecumseh's conspiracy in the Northwest and of the Creeks in the Southwest, the power of the Indians east of the Mississippi River had been broken.

The steamboat and the pack-horse.

This vast, fertile area was now open to migration. People from New England and the Northern States began to move westward in large and increasing numbers. The steamboat greatly aided this westward movement, but the steamboat was of use only on the rivers and lakes. It was necessary for men and all kinds of movable property to pass over wide stretches of country through which navigable rivers did not flow. The pack-horse of early days needed only a path through the woods, but the emigrant called for a roadway to connect the East and the West. Hence the "National Road," beginning on the banks of the Potomac, at Cumberland, Maryland, was undertaken at national expense.

The first contract was let in 1811. By 1820 the road was extended over the mountains to Wheeling, where it connected with the steamboats on the Ohio. The original purpose was to build this road to the Mississippi. But by the time it reached Illinois (1838) the coming of the railroad made its farther extension unnecessary. It helped much in furthering emigration and westward growth. For the construction and repair of this road Congress spent nearly seven million dollars.

238. The Natural Boundary Line Between Freedom and Slavery.—Nature had decreed that the large plantation should have no place in the North. Mason and Dixon's Line and the Ohio River formed the convenient and natural boundary line between the free and the slave States as far west as the Mississippi River.

North of that line slaves were of use mainly as household servants. It was thought that other kinds of work could be done with greater profit by white labor. In all this northern area, therefore, there were comparatively few

Slavery in the North and in the South.

slaves. But south of that line the soil and climate were favorable to the growth of cotton, rice, sugar, and tobacco. The successful cultivation of these great staples called for an abundance of cheap labor always at hand when needed. Slavery fulfilled these conditions. Moreover, it was assumed that the negroes, if set free, would not work, and hence slavery seemed to the Southern planter necessary for his highest prosperity. Since the freeing of the slaves, this assumption has been shown to be incorrect, but it was none the less believed in the South before the Civil War.

239. The Question of the Extension of Slavery into the Louisiana Territory.—Before the Louisiana Purchase, then, soil and climate seem to have largely decided what should be the line separating freedom from slavery. Seven of the thirteen original States were free and six were slave, but the admission of new ones had been so planned that in 1819 there were eleven standing for freedom and the same number for slavery. In this way each section had an equal vote in the Senate. In the House of Representatives the North, having grown in population much faster than the South, had by 1819 a much larger vote.[1] If, however, the South could maintain an equality in the Senate, legislation unfriendly

The South eager to maintain an equality in the Senate.

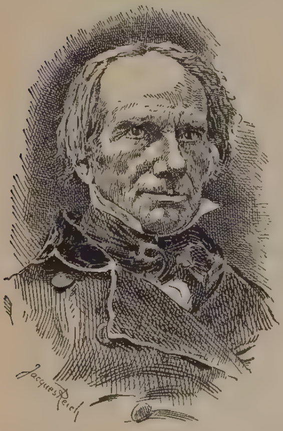
---

[1] REPRESENTATION IN CONGRESS IN 1820.

No.	Free States.	Admitted.	Senate.	House of Rep.	No.	Slave States.	Admitted.	Senate.	House of Rep.
1	Pennsylvania...	1787	2	23	1	Delaware......	1787	2	2
2	New Jersey....	1787	2	6	2	Georgia.......	1788	2	6
3	Connecticut....	1788	2	7	3	Maryland.....	1788	2	9
4	Massachusetts..	1788	2	13	4	South Carolina	1788	2	9
5	New Hampshire	1788	2	6	5	Virginia......	1788	2	23
6	New York.....	1788	2	27	6	North Carolina	1789	2	13
7	Rhode Island..	1790	2	2	7	Kentucky.....	1792	2	10
8	Vermont.......	1791	2	6	8	Tennessee....	1796	2	6
9	Ohio..........	1803	2	6	9	Louisiana ...	1812	2	1
10	Indiana.......	1816	2	1	10	Mississippi...	1817	2	1
11	Illinois.......	1818	2	1	11	Alabama	1818	2	1
12	Maine.........	1820	2	7	12	Missouri.....	1821	2	1
12	Free..........	......	24	105	12	Slave.........	......	24	82

to slavery could be prevented, and to this end the slaveholders were ready to put forth all their energy.

240. The Missouri Compromise (1820).—In 1818 Missouri, a part of the Louisiana Purchase, applied for admission into the Union. The first State admitted from this purchase, Louisiana, had come in as a slave State in 1812, but it was far south of the line dividing freedom and slavery as already established. Missouri, however, lay partly north of this dividing line and partly south. The Northern people claimed that as Congress had control of the Territories it had a constitutional right to decide whether they should be free or slave. The Southern people, on the other hand, insisted that each State had a constitutional right to decide this question for itself.


HENRY CLAY, "THE GREAT PEACEMAKER."

Attitude of the North and the South toward slavery in Missouri.

When applying for admission the people of Missouri had requested that they might have slavery. It happened that about the same time Maine wished to be admitted as a free State. The slaveholders, therefore, refused to allow Maine to enter the Union unless Missouri should be admitted as a slave State. The struggle was long and bitter. At last, largely through the influence of Henry Clay, an act known as the "Missouri Compromise" was passed, which, for the time, settled the difficulty.

The two provisions of the Missouri Compromise.

This compromise had two provisions: (1) Missouri was to come into the Union as a slave State; (2) all the remaining territory in the Louisiana Purchase, north of the parallel of 36° 30′, or the southern boundary of Missouri, was to be forever free. Maine was admitted as a free State in 1820, and Missouri as a slave State in 1821, making twelve free and twelve slave

States. It was supposed that the slavery difficulty was forever settled. "Forever" in this case meant only about twenty-five years.

241. The Erie Canal (1817–1825).[1]—Transportation overland, from east to west, by means of wagons and draught animals was slow and expensive. Some better means of travel and communication between the Altantic coast and the Mississippi valley had therefore become a necessity. This necessity suggested to the thoughtful mind of DeWitt Clinton the building of a canal to connect the Great Lakes with the eastern seaboard. So in 1817, through his untiring energy, a large body of laborers began the task of digging the Erie Canal.

Difficulties in building the canal.

It extended from Buffalo, on Lake Erie, to Albany, on the Hudson, a distance of three hundred and sixty-three miles. As Lake Erie is nearly six hundred feet higher than the level of the Hudson, and as the canal had to pass through forests and over rivers, many people looked upon the scheme as a foolish venture. By way of ridicule they called the canal "Clinton's Ditch." But Clinton's perseverance overcame all opposition, and the Erie Canal was ready for use in 1825. It was built at the expense of the State of New York, and was easily paid for by tolls levied on boats and goods passing through it.

242. Results of the Construction of the Erie Canal.—The results of constructing the Erie Canal surpassed the highest expectations, even of Clinton. (1) Cost of transportation was reduced. Before the canal was in use $10 was paid for carrying a barrel of flour from Buffalo to Albany by wagon. By canal-boat the expense was reduced to thirty cents per barrel. (2) Since the canal made travel easier and less expensive, it increased migration westward. Before the building of the New York Central Railroad it carried thousands of emigrants. (3) All along the canal towns and cities rapidly grew up, so that New York soon became the most populous State in the Union. (4) It greatly stimulated the development of New York city, which shortly became, as it has since remained, the chief commercial city in the country. (5) By largely reducing the freight charges for transportation of goods it made the food produced on Western farms much cheaper in the East, and for the same reason it caused manufactured goods from the East and imported goods from Europe to sell for lower prices in the West. It therefore increased the wealth of both the East and the West.

---

[1] The Erie Canal was opened in the autumn of 1825, the first year of John Quincy Adams's administration. John Quincy Adams, the son of John Adams and the sixth President of the United States (1825–1829), was born at Braintree, Massachusetts, in 1767, and died in 1848. After graduating from Harvard he began the study of law. His public service was long and distinguished. He was not only American minister to Holland, Portugal, England, Prussia, and Russia, but was one of the American peace commissioners at the close of the War of 1812. After serving with signal ability as Monroe's Secretary of State, he was elected to the presidency. As President he was unpopular and made many enemies. But the greatest part of his career began when he entered the national House of Representatives in 1831. Here he became the anti-slavery statesman of his time. His fearlessness won the admiration of friend and foe alike. He remained a member of the House until 1848, when he fell dead in the Capitol. He was well called the "Old Man Eloquent."

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS, THE ANTI-SLAVERY STATESMAN.

243. Internal Improvements.—The National Road and the Erie Canal were a part of an extensive system of internal improvements which were of great service in developing the West and connecting it with the East. This system included not only the building of roads and canals, but the improvement of rivers and harbors. Some of these roads and canals were built by private enterprise and some by the separate States. The cost of building and keeping them in repair was met by toll charges. Many people believed that Congress had a right to make internal improvements at the expense of the whole people. Many others insisted that such improvements should be made by private companies or by

Two ways of making internal improvements.

the separate State governments. These last urged that the "general welfare"[1] of the people was not served by building roads and canals and by improving rivers and harbors, which directly benefited limited areas only. They therefore argued that such works should not be undertaken by the general government at national expense.

This was the view of those who gave a strict construction to all parts of the Constitution. Madison, Monroe, and Jackson were of this party. Those who gave a broad construction to the Constitution said that this power was implied in the following clause: "The Congress shall have power to make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all the powers vested by the Constitution in the government of the United States" (Article I., Section 8, Clause 18). This has rightly been called the "Elastic Clause." The "River and Harbor Bill," passed every year for the improvement of rivers and harbors in all parts of the country, shows that Congress to-day gives a liberal construction to the Constitution.

The "Elastic Clause."

244. New Problems and a New Political Party.—The best way of making internal improvements was a new problem for the people to solve, but there were other problems equally difficult. The Alien and Sedition laws had seriously injured the Federalist party; the Hartford Convention had killed it, leaving the Democratic-Republicans as the only political party in the country. From 1817 to 1825, during Monroe's administration, this singular condition of affairs prevailed, and this period has ever since been known as the "Era of Good Feeling."

The era of good feeling.

But the new problems that soon presented themselves led to the rise of a new political party and involved three pressing and vital questions: (1) Shall internal improvements be made by Congress at national expense? (2) Is the United States Bank constitutional? (3) Is the true policy of the country a tariff for

Three pressing questions.

---

[1] See preamble of the Constitution.

revenue only or a high tariff for the protection of home industries? The Democrats, as the Democratic-Republicans now began to call themselves, believed in leaving internal improvements to private enterprise or to State governments. They regarded the Bank of the United States as unconstitutional. They favored a low tariff.

The National Republican party.

The new party wished internal improvements to be made at national expense, approved the United States Bank, and urged that a high protective tariff was for the best interests of the people. Because this new party favored the strengthening of the national government in these three ways it was called the National Republican Party.

TO THE PUPIL

1. James Monroe was now President, serving two terms, 1817–1825.
2. What difficulties led to the purchase of Florida?
3. What was the Holy Alliance, and what was its connection with the Monroe Doctrine? Name the three main provisions of this Doctrine. Try to understand clearly the meaning of the Monroe Doctrine. It will come up again later.
4. Before the purchase of Louisiana, what was the natural boundary line between free and slave territory? Explain how soil and climate favored slavery south of Mason and Dixon's Line and the Ohio River.
5. Why was the South eager to maintain in the Senate an equality with the North? What difficulty was settled by the Missouri Compromise? What was this Compromise?
6. Review what has been said about the pack-horse, the flat boat, the steamboat, and the National Road. In what way did the Erie Canal supplement these? Do not be satisfied until you know well the results of constructing this canal, especially the last one named in the text.
7. John Quincy Adams, who served for one term, 1825–1829, was now President.
8. What was meant by internal improvements? Why were they greatly needed at this time? What two views were held as to the best way of making internal improvements?
9. You see you are again face to face with the two opposite views of the true meaning of the Constitution. What were these views? What is the "Elastic Clause"?

10. What were the new political problems, and what the pressing questions they involved? What was the new political party, and how did it answer each of these questions? How did the Democratic party answer them?
11. In this connection you might well review what you have already studied about political parties. You will recall two great mistakes made by the Federalist party. Make frequent use of the index.
12. Read Washington's Farewell Address and the message containing the Monroe Doctrine.

CHAPTER XVI

JACKSONIAN DEMOCRACY AND THE WEST (1829–1841)

REFERENCES: **Scribner's** Popular History of the United States, IV.; **Andrews's** United States, I.; **Burgess's** Middle Period; **Wright's** Children's Stories of American Progress; **Wilson's** Division and Reunion; **Coffin's** Building the Nation; **Richardson's** History of Our Country.

OUTSIDE READINGS: **Schouler's** United States, III. and IV.; **Rhodes's** The United States, I.; **Wilson's** A History of the American People, IV.; **Sumner's** Andrew Jackson; **Lodge's** Daniel Webster; **Von Holst's** John C. Calhoun; **Schurz's** Henry Clay; **Morse's** John Quincy Adams; **Johnston's** American Orations (Webster and Hayne); **Bolton's** Famous American Statesmen; **Teft's** Webster and His Masterpieces.

FICTION: **Eggleston's** Hoosier Schoolmaster; **Eggleston's** Graysons.

245. Character of Andrew Jackson.[1]—The six Presidents that preceded Jackson came from Virginia or Massachusetts. They were all men of culture and stood for what was best in the social life of New England and the South. Andrew Jackson was of a different type. He represented the frontier life of the West.

His education had been meagre, but he was a man of much ability and of strong and forceful character. He was a natural leader of men and had occupied many positions of trust in the community in which he lived. His unbounded faith in his own convictions caused him to commit some errors as President. But he was always sincere and intensely patriotic. He was loyal to his friends, but severe upon his enemies. His personal prejudices and his jealousy for the nation were so intense that he regarded those disagreeing with him as not only enemies to himself but to his country.

---

[1] Andrew Jackson, seventh President of the United States (1829–1837), was born in Union County, North Carolina, in 1767, and died at his home, "The Hermitage," near Nashville, in 1845. When only fourteen years old he joined the American force under Sumter. After the Revolution he began to study law. At the age of twenty-nine he removed to Nashville and soon became prominent in public life. He was elected to the national House of Representatives, and later to the Senate. In 1814 he was appointed major-general in the United States army and in this position won the brilliant victory at the battle of New Orleans. On account of his obstinate will his friends called him "Old Hickory."

A man of the people.

His genuine interest in the welfare of the people cannot be questioned. During the eight years of his Presidency (1829–1837) his influence upon the course of events was a personal one. He was in a true sense a man of the people, who cheerfully followed wherever he led.

ANDREW JACKSON.
"The Union! It must and shall be preserved!"

246. The Spoils System.—When Jackson became President he desired to reward those political friends who had worked faithfully for his election. Moreover, he believed in the rights of the people, and did not deem it democratic to allow any set of men to remain long in office to the exclusion of others just as worthy.

Rotation in office.

He therefore decided to adopt the more democratic principle of "rotation in office." "To the victors belong the spoils," was his motto. He accordingly turned out of office two thousand postmasters[1] and other officials, although their work was in no way connected with politics. Jackson appointed his own followers to positions which he had made vacant by removal. He appointed them because they were his followers and not because they had a special fitness for the official work they were to do. This was the introduction into national politics of the "Spoils System." The system, until 1883, had full sway in the country, and has had a most demoralizing influence on the political life of the nation.

---

[1] During the forty years from 1789 to 1829, there had been only 74 removals, or, on an average, less than two a year. Of these, Washington had made 9; John Adams, 10; Jefferson, 39; Madison, 5; Monroe, 9; John Quincy Adams, 2.

247. "A Tariff for Revenue with Incidental Protection."—It will be remembered that during the time of the Embargo and the War of 1812 the country, being cut off from foreign trade, was obliged to build its own mills and factories to produce whatever manufactured goods were needed for home use. As the streams flowing down New England hillsides furnished excellent water-power, the business men of that region gradually invested their capital in manufacturing instead of commerce. Until 1816 duties had been levied on goods from foreign countries mainly for revenue to pay the expenses of the national government. These duties furnished only incidental protection to American manufacturers. Such a system of duties is called "a tariff for revenue with incidental protection."

248. A Protective Tariff.—After the war closed, however, and trade was resumed with foreign countries, our markets became flooded with foreign goods, especially from England. Labor was so much cheaper in England than in this country that her merchants could sell goods to the United States at a lower price than American manufacturers could afford to sell them.

English goods in American markets.

Our manufacturers naturally called for a higher tariff on the goods that could be made to advantage in American mills and factories. These imported goods would then cost so much in the United States that the American manufacturer could afford to undersell the foreigner and still make a profit. Such a tariff is said to encourage home industries, or to protect American manufacturers from foreign competition. It is therefore called a protective tariff.

249. South Carolina Objects to a High Protective Tariff.—The first protective tariff was laid in 1816. It was too moderate. The duties were so low that foreign merchants could pay them and still fill our markets with their goods. The New England manufacturers could not thrive under such conditions and urged Congress to raise the duties. These were therefore gradually increased until the high tariff of 1828 was passed.

The high tariff of 1828.

The industrial conditions of the South were so different from those of the North that manufacturing had no place there. The people of the South were almost exclusively employed in raising on their plantations the four great staples: rice, sugar, cotton, and tobacco. The slaves were not intelligent enough to be employed in manufacturing. They were adapted only to agricultural labor. Such a difference in industrial conditions between the North and the South was decidedly unfortunate. The conflicting business interests of the two sections brought about a serious disagreement in regard to the tariff system.

Slavery and the four great staples of the South.

JOHN C. CALHOUN, THE DEFENDER OF SLAVERY AND STATE RIGHTS.

The Southern people had to buy all the manufactured goods they used, and naturally wished to buy them at as low prices as possible. They claimed the right to import foreign goods free from duty. In other words, they wished free trade, or freedom to seek, without government restrictions, any foreign market. The people of South Carolina claimed that a protective tariff made them poorer and the New England manufacturers richer, and that it was therefore sectional and unfair.

The South desires free trade.

250. Calhoun and Nullification (1831–1832).—John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina, Vice-President during most of Jackson's first term, and an able statesman, was the leader of his State in this memorable struggle over the tariff. He declared that inasmuch as the tariff enriched the Northern manufacturers at the expense of the South, it was sectional and, therefore, unconstitutional.

His theory was that of the Kentucky and Virginia Resolutions. It declared that the States were superior to the Union and that each was its own master, or practically a sovereign nation. According to his idea, the Union was only a loose-jointed confederacy, and South Carolina had a right to decide for itself whether or not laws passed by Congress were constitutional. This was the doctrine of State Rights. He believed, also, that the State could nullify, or declare not binding in its own territory, any law which it decided to be unconstitutional. This was the doctrine of Nullification.

Calhoun believes in State Rights and Nullification.

251. New England Manufacturers and the Protective Tariff.—On the other hand, the manufacturers of New England and of other Northern States vigorously maintained that a protective tariff would benefit the whole country in the following ways: (1) It would provide a revenue to defray the expenses of the Government; (2) it would, by making wages higher, better the condition of workingmen; (3) it would furnish a home market for the products of the farm; (4) it would cause a greater diversity of interests in the United States and would thus make the country more independent of foreign nations, especially in time of war.

252. Webster and the Union.—About the same time there was in the United States Senate a great debate between Daniel Webster, of Massachusetts, and Robert Y. Hayne, of South Carolina, over the public lands. This debate was a part of the controversy between the North and the South about the true meaning of the Constitution. Webster, like Hamilton, believed in a strong Federal Union, supreme in matters concerning the interests common to all the people. He saw clearly that a Union composed of States with the right to nullify at pleasure any laws passed by Congress must in time break down, just as the Confederation had after the close of the Revolution. He therefore insisted that, under the Constitution, the State governments were inferior to the Federal government. According to his idea, the United States was a nation with supreme authority over

Webster believes the Union to be supreme over the States.

the States, and he summed up his views in those glowing words that to-day should inspire us with lofty patriotism: "Liberty and Union, now and forever, one and inseparable."

253. Jackson's Feeling Toward Nullification.—In the meantime there was much excitement over the tariff agitation. The South Carolina people, knowing Jackson's opposition to a high protective tariff, were eager to find out the President's feeling about the position their State was taking. They invited him to a dinner in Washington, and called upon him for a speech on a toast of his own selection. He startled them by proposing this toast: "Our Federal Union: it must be preserved." Although he did not like the tariff, yet as the head of the Federal Union he meant to enforce its laws. At another time, when asked by a member of Congress from South Carolina whether he had any message for his friends in that State, he said: "Please give my compliments to my friends in your State, and say to them that if a single drop of blood shall be shed in opposition to the laws of the United States, I will hang the first man I can lay my hands on engaged in such treasonable conduct." In this struggle for the Union, Jackson was nobly supported by Thomas H. Benton, a prominent Senator from Missouri.

Jackson's toast.

DANIEL WEBSTER.

"*Liberty and Union, now and forever, one and inseparable.*"

254. South Carolina and State Rights.—In 1832 an attempt was made to pour oil upon the troubled waters by adopting a new protective tariff, lower and therefore less objectionable to the South than the tariff of 1828. But South Carolina, being opposed to the principle of protection, was still dissatisfied.

Accordingly, a State convention was called (1832) which

South Carolina declares the tariff acts null and void.

declared that the tariff acts of 1828 and 1832 were null and void, and prohibited the collection, after a certain date (February 1, 1833), of duties under these laws in the ports of South Carolina. It threatened that, in case the United States should try to enforce the tariff laws in South Carolina, she would withdraw from the Union and organize a separate government. When Jackson received the news of the action of the South Carolina Convention he was filled with indignation. Raising aloft his right arm, he exclaimed: "The Union! It must and shall be preserved! Send for General Scott!" Troops and war-vessels were at once sent to Charleston with orders to collect duties upon all imported goods entering the harbor.

ROBERT Y. HAYNE

The compromise with South Carolina.

Through Clay's influence, however, Congress enacted a compromise measure, gradually lowering the duties. Under this gradual reduction, the tariff, at the end of ten years, would not be far removed from a tariff for revenue only. But the prompt, energetic action of the President was an object-lesson to the nation. We should remember with gratitude the unflinching devotion of Daniel Webster and Andrew Jackson to the Union at this critical time.

255. Jackson and the United States Bank.—The first United States Bank was planned and chartered by Alexander Hamilton[1] for twenty years (1791 to 1811); and the second one also received a charter for the same number of years (1816 to 1836). It was to receive all revenue and other public money and to pay this out as needed by the government. Its friends, the National Republicans, maintained that it made the paper currency safer and more uniform throughout the United States. Jackson declared it was unconstitutional: that it enriched its managers at the expense of the people, and was therefore not democratic: that its funds were used in politics to reward its friends and to injure its enemies.

---

[1] This bank was an important feature in Hamilton's scheme for giving the national government a firm financial footing.

256. Jackson's Removal of Deposits (1833).—Although the charter of the second United States Bank was not to expire until 1836, a bill to recharter was passed by Congress in 1832. It failed to become a law by reason of Jackson's veto. The next year the President decided upon the removal of the deposits. He therefore ordered that after that time all the money of the government should be deposited in various State banks. This was known as the "removal of deposits." Since in every case these banks were managed by Democrats, they were known as "pet banks." The effect of this "removal of deposits" will be better understood if we observe how money was used at that time in the development and expansion of the West.

Pet Banks.

257. The Introduction of the Railroad.—Vast sums had been spent in the construction of better means of transportation. As already seen (see par. 216), the application of steam-power to boats made the people independent of wind and current. But methods of trade and travel overland were altogether too slow and meagre for the energetic American people. Roads, canals, and steamboats had promoted travel and transportation, but the great problem was to find some way of applying steam-power to travel and transportation by land. The railroad and the steam-driven locomotive-engine furnished a solution.

The new problem.

The first form of the railroad was the wooden rail used in the coal mines of England. The next step was to cover the wooden rail with a thin layer of iron for protection. This was the form in which the first railroad appeared in the United States at Quincy, Massachusetts (1826). This

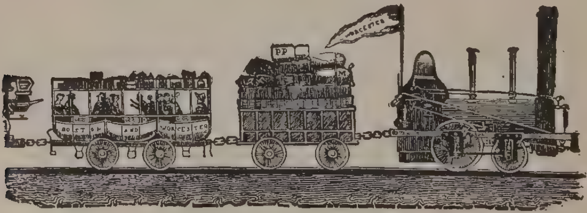
The first passenger railroad in the United States.

road was only five miles long, and its cars were drawn by horses. It was used to carry granite from the quarries to the place of shipping. In 1828 the first passenger railroad in the United States was begun in Baltimore. It extended westward about thirteen miles, and its cars were at first drawn by horses. This road was the beginning of the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad.

THE BALTIMORE & OHIO RAILROAD, 1830-35.

258. The Growth and Results of the Railroad. — The growth of the railroad in the United States has been wonderful. In 1828 there were only 3 miles; in 1837, 1,500 miles; and in 1840, 2,200 miles. From that time on the growth has been tremendous. The United States now has over 200,000 miles of railroad.

The railroad brought about great changes in the life of the people: (1) It stimulated Western migration; (2) it made Western lands more valuable; (3) by lowering cost of transportation, it cheapened Western food in the East and Eastern manufactured goods in the West; (4) it there-



THE BOSTON & WORCESTER RAILROAD IN 1835.

fore added to the wealth of both parts of the country and brought the people into closer sympathy and union.

259. Rapid Growth of the West.—From 1821 to 1837 the country was highly prosperous. Crops were good, trade and manufacturing flourished, and cities grew rapidly. In 1821 the population of the whole country was ten millions; in 1837 it was sixteen millions. This remarkable growth in population was encouraged by the vast expanse of rich public land which the government was offering for very small sums, in order to increase Western migration and settlement.[1]

The growth was stimulated by the steamboat and the railroad. Before 1837 steamboats were in extensive use on

---

[1] An examination of the following two tables, one showing the number of foreign immigrants for the years 1829–1837, and the other the population of many of the States for 1821 and 1837, will give a better idea of the rapidity of this growth in the West:

IMMIGRATION TABLE, 1829-37.

Year.	Number of Immigrants.	Year.	Number of Immigrants.
1829	22,520	1834	65,365
1830	23,322	1835	45,374
1831	22,633	1836	76,242
1832	60,482	1837	79,340
1833	58,640		

POPULATION IN 1821.		POPULATION IN 1837.
	Round Numbers.	Round Numbers.
New York	1,400,000	2,200,000
Pennsylvania	1,000,000	1,600,000
Ohio	600,000	1,400,000
Tennessee	450,000	800,000
Indiana	170,000	600,000
Mississippi	80,000	320,000
Missouri	70,000	350,000
Illinois	60,000	400,000
Michigan	10,000	200,000

the Great Lakes, the Ohio, the Mississippi, and the many smaller tributaries of those rivers. And now, with the invention of the railroad, settlement spread westward with ever-increasing rapidity. Towns and cities sprang into existence as if by magic. In 1830 Chicago consisted of a fort (Dearborn) and a small village. In 1833 it had 550 inhabitants; in 1837 it numbered 4,170; and at the last census the population was 2,185,283.

260. Speculation in Western Lands.—Extensive areas of Western public lands, offered at low prices, filled men with the fever of speculation. Plans were laid to buy up large tracts and connect them with the East by roads, canals, and railroads. It required a great amount of money to establish all these great lines of communication started up by the railroads, but the demand was easily met after the "removal of deposits," for then the public money was distributed among many State banks, and was more accessible to borrowers. Loans could now be obtained, and here and there cities were laid out in the West. Then by the sale of these lands, at an enormous advance in price, the speculators became suddenly wealthy. Fortune-making seemed so easy that men took great risks with borrowed money.

261. Wild-cat Banking.—The increasing demand for money led to "wild-cat" banking. A few men with little or no capital to make good the notes they issued, would start a bank by issuing cheaply printed bills (notes) which they circulated under the name of money. After buying public lands from the government at high prices and paying for them with these notes, they would sell their lands for gold and silver. When, however, their own notes returned to be redeemed in gold and silver, these dishonest bankers would fail, and, in some cases, go elsewhere and repeat their swindling operations.

262. The United States Free from Debt.—Of course this speculation in government lands made it easy for the United States to pay the public debt. Whereas, in 1830, the sum received for these lands was $2,300,000, six years later it reached nearly $25,000,000. We need not be surprised, then, that by the end of 1835 the public debt was paid. The apparent prosperity made foreigners eager to emigrate from Europe to this country, and they came in large numbers (see table, page 274).

263. State Speculation in Internal Improvements.—After the public debt was paid there was a large surplus, $28,000,000 of which was distributed among the various States. It was now very easy for State governments, especially where the "pet banks" were located, to get money for carrying out their extensive plans, and these governments invested large sums in internal improvements. Not satisfied with what their States supplied, they began to borrow largely from foreign countries. By 1837 these foreign debts amounted to nearly two hundred million dollars. Of course the loans from foreign countries made money all the more plentiful, and the fever of speculation raged more fiercely than ever.

A RAILWAY COACH OF 1830.

264. The Specie Circular.—Such reckless speculation could not fail to bring disaster. The wild-cat banks had issued so many paper promises, based upon nothing more solid than the people's willingness to receive them, that, like the Continental currency, they became worthless. Jackson was alarmed at the amount of this worthless paper coming into the United States Treasury.

He therefore issued the famous Specie Circular, which declared that in the future nothing but specie, or gold and silver, should be received in payment for these lands. Wild-cat bank-notes were no longer of any use in buying and selling public lands. These notes went streaming back to the Eastern banks that had issued them, for redemption in gold and silver. Since the banks were without the gold and silver to make good these printed promises, the promises were worth nothing and could not be redeemed.

265. The Financial Panic of 1837.[1]—Of course there at once arose a great cry for money. Men tried to sell stocks, houses, lands—in fact every kind of property—to raise money to pay their debts. All wanted to sell. None cared to buy. As always happens under such conditions, prices went down with astonishing rapidity. There were extensive business failures, and rich men became poor. Mills and factories shut down because they could not sell their goods. Laboring men were thereby thrown out of work, and their families suffered for lack of food. Soon there were bread riots in the streets of New York. It was a terrible time and has always been known as the "Panic of 1837."

MARTIN VAN BUREN.

266. The Independent Treasury.—As mentioned above, many of the States had made extensive foreign loans for the purpose of building roads, canals, and railroads. When caught by the great financial panic of 1837, some States refused to pay the interest on these loans, and some went so far as to refuse to pay either principal or interest. Such a refusal on the part of a State to pay its debts is called repudiation. In the midst of this financial distress

Repudiation of State debts.

---

[1] Martin Van Buren, eighth President of the United States, was born at Kinderhook, New York, in 1782, and died in 1862. After he had received his training as a lawyer he began, at only eighteen years of age, his long political career. He represented New York in the Senate and afterward served his State as Governor. When Jackson was elected President he made Van Buren his Secretary of State. During Jackson's second term Van Buren was Vice-President. In 1837 the latter became President, but owing to the unpopularity of his administration he failed to be re-elected. He was eminent not only as a lawyer but also as a political leader.

the "pet banks" were unable to pay the Federal Government the public money which it had deposited in them.

The government being greatly embarrassed, President Van Buren, Jackson's successor, was obliged to call a special session of Congress to adopt some plan for getting money to pay the running expenses of the government. Congress authorized the Treasury Department to issue $10,000,000 in notes. The wisdom of having an independent treasury instead of a number of State Banks for the safe-keeping of all the public money, was now evident. By 1846 it had become the settled policy of the United States to have a national treasury which should take care of all the money paid to the government. This independent treasury is at Washington, while there are nine branches known as subtreasuries distributed in various commercial centres.[1]

267. The Public School System and the Newspaper.—As life began to move at a quicker pace people began to think more actively, and to take a larger interest in things outside of their immediate surroundings. In the newer States there was such a democratic feeling that every man was made a voter.[2] Manhood suffrage, adopted in all the West, soon spread to the older communities of the East. All the people, coming into full control of public affairs, began to feel a deep interest in political life.

Manhood suffrage.

It thus became a necessity to educate men to an intelligent conception of their duties toward the State and society. This led to a great improvement in the public school systems, especially in the newer States. If the people were to be rulers they must have intelligence and virtue enough to rule wisely. In this period the modern newspaper may be said to have been born. The New York *Sun* (1833) and the New York *Herald* (1835) became more energetic than before in collecting news, were printed in a more convenient form, and were sold at lower prices. From that time the daily newspaper has had a great influence in moulding public opinion.

---

[1] These are located in New York, Chicago, San Francisco, Philadelphia, Boston, St. Louis, Cincinnati, New Orleans, and Baltimore.

[2] In the earlier years the suffrage was in many ways restricted in the older States.

268. Other Aids to Progress.—Other aids to progress were furnished in the establishment of transatlantic steamship lines and in the invention of the McCormick reaping-machine. The *Savannah*, sailing from Savannah, Georgia, in 1819, was the first ocean steamship to cross the Atlantic. In 1838 two English steamships, the *Sirius* and the *Great Western*, sailed from England to New York. Two years later the first regular transatlantic steamship line, between New York and Liverpool, was established. This was the beginning of the well-known Cunard Line. Ocean steamship traffic greatly stimulated European immigration to this country.

The McCormick reaping machine, which came into use in 1834, was destined to have a large influence upon the development of the West. By making farm-work easier and more profitable, it stimulated emigration to the fertile Western lands.[1]

269. The Temperance Movement.—There was so much pauperism and general demoralization during the years following the War of 1812 that people became alarmed and began to inquire the cause. Investigating committees reported that drinking was the most fruitful source of the evil. Everybody drank—ministers, doctors, merchants, laborers, and even women and children. An occasion was never wanting; at funerals, weddings, dinners, and whenever friends met, the social glass flowed.

In 1824 there began in Boston a great national movement which swept through the Union. Its principle was abstinence from strong drink. By 1830 a thousand temperance societies had been formed and hundreds of merchants had given up the sale of liquor. Temperance societies increased in number and influence, saving hundreds of thousands of men from the curse of the drinking habit. From that time the cause of temperance has steadily gained ground.

---

[1] In 1838, matches, adding much to the comfort and convenience of household life, came into successful use.

TO THE PUPIL

1. You have now reached an important chapter in your nation's history. Study it carefully. Since 1829 the influence of the West has been very great. You will therefore add 1829 to the following landmarks: 1789, 1803, 1812–1814, 1820. Review the meaning of these dates.
2. Are you still grouping less important events about the more important?
3. Andrew Jackson was President for two terms, 1829–1837. Name in order the Presidents who preceded him. What was the secret of Jackson's large influence over the people? Name his most striking characteristics.
4. What was the "Spoils System"? What did Jackson mean by saying that it was democratic? How did he apply this system to the national civil service? What is the civil service? Do you think Jackson was wise, or unwise, in introducing the "Spoils System" into national politics? Give reasons for your answer.
5. Review the tariff measure enacted when Washington was President. What was its double purpose? What is meant by "a tariff for revenue, with incidental protection"?
6. Recall the effect which the Embargo and the War of 1812 had upon the growth of manufacturing in New England. Why could English goods be sold at a lower price than American? What is a protective tariff?
7. Why did South Carolina object to a high protective tariff? What difference was there in the industrial conditions of the North and the South?
8. On what ground did Calhoun declare that the protective tariff was unconstitutional? What was his idea of the Union? Define nullification and State rights.
9. What arguments did Northern manufacturers advance in favor of a protective tariff? What was Webster's idea of the Union? Find out all you can about the personality of these noted statesmen.
10. What was Jackson's feeling toward nullification? How did he express this feeling in a toast and in a message he sent to friends in South Carolina?
11. What action was taken by the State Convention in South Carolina? What did Jackson do when he heard of South Carolina's bold step?
12. Subject for debate: Resolved, that a protective tariff was for the best interests of the country as a whole.

13. What was the purpose of the United States Bank? What three charges did Jackson bring against it? What is meant by his "removal of deposits" and by "pet banks"?
14. What results followed the building of railroads? Discuss the rapid growth of the West. Why was there extensive speculation in Western lands, and how did the "removal of deposits" make such speculation easier?
15. What was wild-cat banking? How did speculation affect the payment of the public debt? What effect did the payment of the public debt have upon foreign immigration? Can you now explain the relation of the railroad to Western development and to speculation in Western lands?
16. What led Jackson to issue the specie circular? How did it help to bring on the financial panic of 1837?
17. What is the independent treasury?
18. Prepare yourself to write from three to five minutes on any of the following topics: The public schools, the newspaper, and the temperance movement.
19. Read Webster's famous "Reply to Hayne" and memorize some of the most eloquent passages.

CHAPTER XVII

THE SLAVERY QUESTION (1841[1]–1859)[2]

REFERENCES: **Scribner's** Popular History of the United States, IV.; **Andrews's** United States, II.; **Wright's** Children's Stories of American Progress; **Burgess's** Middle Period; **Wilson's** Division and Reunion; **Richardson's** History of Our Country; **Coffin's** Building the Nation.

OUTSIDE READINGS: **Rhodes's** United States, I. and II.; **Schouler's** United States, IV. and V.; **Wilson's** A History of the American People, IV.; **Draper's** Civil War, I.; **Ropes's** Story of the Civil War; **Hart's** Romance of the Civil War; **Brigham's** Geographic Influence in American History; **Goldwin Smith's** United States; **Johnston's** American Orations, II. and III.; **Bolton's** Famous American Statesmen; **Trent's** William Gilmore Simms; **Grant's** Personal Memoirs; **Olmstead's** Seaboard Slave States; **Olmstead's** Texas Journey; **Olmstead's** Journey in the Back Country; **Page's** Old South.

FICTION: **Stowe's** Uncle Tom's Cabin; **Stowe's** Minister's Wooing; **Munroe's** Golden Days of '49; **Harris's** Uncle Remus; **Brooks's** Boy Settlers; **Brooks's** Boy Emigrants.

POETRY: **Whittier's** Slave Ships; **Whittier's** Our Countrymen in Chains; **Longfellow's** Slave's Dreams.

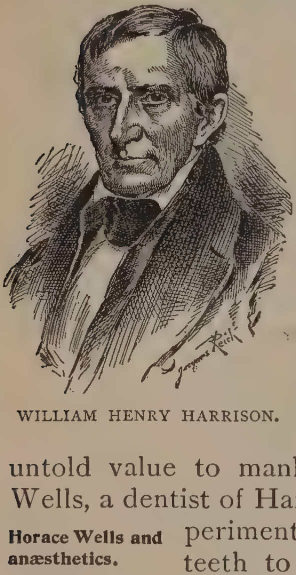
THE RISE OF THE ABOLITION MOVEMENT

270. Morse and the Electric Telegraph (1844).—Before we consider the slavery question, let us briefly refer to a few other events. After twelve years of patient effort, Samuel F. B. Morse succeeded in bringing the electric telegraph into practical use (1844). Being poor, he had tried for four years to get an appropriation from Congress for testing his invention. At length Congress reluctantly voted him $30,000 for constructing a line from Baltimore to Washington, a distance of forty miles.

---

[1] William Henry Harrison, ninth President of the United States, was born in Charles City County, Virginia, in 1773, and died in Washington, District of Columbia, in 1841. After attending Hampden Sidney College, Virginia, he began to study medicine, but being drawn toward military life he soon entered the army at nineteen years of age. In the War of 1812 he served as major-general with distinguished success. Later he represented his State in both Houses of Congress. He was the Whig candidate for the Presidency in 1840, and after an exciting canvass in what has been called the "log-cabin and hard-cider campaign" was elected. He died just one month after his inauguration.

[2] John Tyler, tenth President of the United States (1841–1845), was born in Charles City County, Virginia, in 1790, and died in 1862. After he was graduated


WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON.

What the telegraph has done for the world.

Morse himself sent the first message from the Supreme Court room, in Washington, to Baltimore. "What hath God wrought!" was the message. Fitting words were these, since the telegraph has brought great changes into the world. By means of it trade and commerce have been much increased. Business men can keep themselves acquainted with the quotations of the world's great markets every hour in the day. They can transact more business in five or six hours now than could have been transacted in as many months a hundred years ago.

Horace Wells and anæsthetics.

Another wonderful discovery of untold value to mankind was made in 1844 by Horace Wells, a dentist of Hartford, Connecticut. He tried an experiment upon himself. He caused one of his teeth to be extracted after he had inhaled nitrous oxide, or "laughing-gas," and found that while under the influence of the "laughing-gas" he was insensible to pain. About two years later William T. G. Morton and Charles T. Jackson, both of Boston, made a similar appli-

from the College of William and Mary he studied law and entered upon his long political career. He served his State as governor and represented it in both Houses of Congress. He was elected Vice-President by the Whigs in 1840, and on the death of Harrison became President. He was soon engaged in a bitter struggle with the Whig leaders, with whom he became extremely unpopular. As a warm advocate of State sovereignty, he gave his cordial support to the secession movement in 1861, when he was elected a member of the Confederate Congress.

cation of sulphuric ether to render surgical operations painless. When sulphuric ether and "laughing-gas" are thus used they are called anæsthetics.

271. "Fifty-four Forty or Fight" (1844).—In the same year that Morse's electric telegraph came into successful use, there was much excitement in the United States over the dispute between our country and England about the Northwest Boundary. Our government claimed the country west of the Rockies from the northern boundary of California, then a part of Mexico, to the southern boundary of Alaska, or the parallel of 54° 40′. Great Britain claimed the region as far south as the Columbia River in latitude 46°. By 1818 the dispute over these conflicting claims had grown serious, but the two countries agreed to a joint occupation of the Oregon Country for ten years, and at the end of that period they renewed their agreement for an indefinite time. Why the United States at length laid vigorous claim to it and became so eager for it that the Democratic party in the presidential campaign of 1844 was shouting "Fifty-four forty or fight," can be told in a few words.

Conflicting claims to the Oregon Country.

JOHN TYLER.

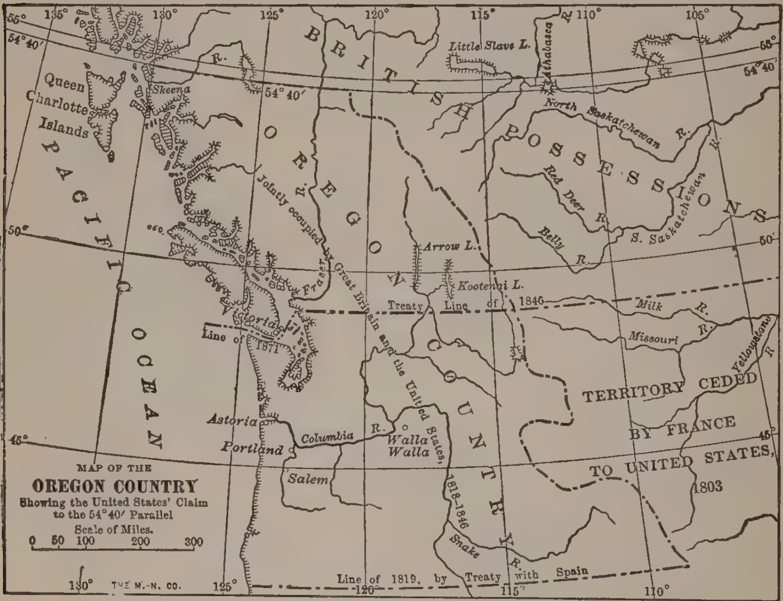
272. American Settlers Strengthen Our Claims to Oregon.—We had several reasons for claiming Oregon. In 1792 Captain Gray, of Boston, discovered the Columbia River, which he named in honor of his ship; in 1805 Lewis and Clark explored this river, and in 1811 an American company established at its mouth the trading post, Astoria. But we made a yet stronger claim by reason of the actual settlements which Americans planted there before 1845. These settlements began in a small way as early as 1832, missionaries being among the first Americans to find their way to the Oregon Country.

Reasons for our claims to Oregon.

Now in this matter of planting settlements we had the advantage of England, because we were nearer the disputed territory. For a long time, to be sure, the English Hudson Bay Company had been out there making money in fur-trading, but this company had planted no settlements.

The Americans, too, were for many years little inclined to seek homes in Oregon. Although small parties of American settlers started for the Columbia River after 1832, no large settlements were made until 1843. In that year one thousand emigrants made the journey of more than two thousand miles, braving many dangers and enduring much hardship. The next year two thousand more went out, and by 1845 about seven thousand American settlers had made their homes in Oregon. The English Hudson Bay Company held only a small number of military posts and trading stations. The United States could therefore claim the country by right of actual possession.

American emigration in 1843 and 1844.


MAP OF THE
OREGON COUNTRY
Showing the United States' Claim to the 54°40′ Parallel
Scale of Miles.

By a treaty agreed upon in 1846 both England and the United States gave up a part of their claims. The boundary determined upon was neither 54° 40′ as desired by the United States, nor 46° as desired by England, but 49°, as at present. The whole Oregon Country included what is now the States of Oregon, Idaho, and Washington, or an area equal to more then fifty States like Connecticut.

The Oregon boundary dispute settled by treaty.

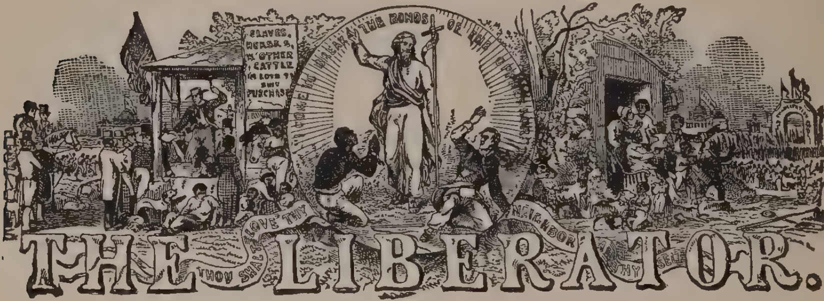
273. The Anti-Slavery Movement.—Hitherto we have not had occasion to refer to a movement which was destined to overthrow the most cherished institution of the South. In order to understand this movement we must notice for a moment the new spirit which was gaining ground among the plain people of the country. It has been rightly said that when Andrew Jackson went to Washington as President he took the people with him. It is certainly true that at that time the common people began to feel a sense of their power such as they had not felt before. Jackson supported them in this feeling by standing up for their rights and by encouraging them to have faith in themselves as controlling the affairs of the nation. There had been various limitations on suffrage in the Eastern States, but now manhood suffrage spread from the West to the East. Government by the people and for the people had become a reality.

The rights of the common people.

The anti-slavery movement, led by the abolitionists, was partly the product of this democratic spirit, but was mainly due to the gradual recognition of the dignity and worth of man as man, regardless of race or color. It was felt that slavery was out of place in a country where the people are the rulers. This sentiment, at first limited to a despised few who were called fanatics, rapidly spread through all classes of society.

274. William Lloyd Garrison and The Liberator.—In 1831 William Lloyd Garrison, a young man of slender means and little education, began to publish a paper called *The Liberator*. In it he urged that all the slaves in the United States should be immediately set free. He went so far as to declare that it would be better to have no Union at all than to have a Union with slavery in one section of it. He boldly asserted that slavery was a "sin against God and a crime against man," and that the Constitution, by giving it support, "was a covenant with death and an agreement with hell."

275. **Southern Opposition.**—The Southern people, however, believed that the immediate abolition of slavery would bring about their financial ruin. Inasmuch as the whole industrial system of the South rested on slavery, they regarded the advocates of immediate abolition as nothing less than public enemies of that section. Therefore governors and State legislators in the South were so eager to punish the abolitionists that large rewards were offered for their capture. But the abolitionists were in earnest, and by means of lectures, pamphlets, books, and newspapers scattered their anti-slavery ideas among the people.


SLAVES, HORSES, & OTHER CATTLE
PURCHASE
THE BONDS OF
THOU SHALT LOVE THY NEIGHBOR AS THY SELF
THE LIBERATOR.

FAC-SIMILE OF THE HEADING OF GARRISON'S PAPER.

276. **Northern Opposition.**—Very few people, even in the North, had any sympathy at that time with Garrison's extreme views about immediate abolition. Northern people thought that such agitation could only result in stirring up sectional feeling and might end in breaking up the Union. To them a Union with slavery seemed better than no Union at all. So the abolitionists were for a time disliked in the North quite as much as in the South, and in various parts

of the North anti-slavery mobs and riots were common for some years.

The opposition to Garrison's teachings became so intense that he was mobbed in the streets of Boston (1835). The mob in its fury had almost torn the clothing from his body and was dragging him through the streets with a rope around his waist, when he was saved from death by the police. Elijah P. Lovejoy was mobbed and murdered in Illinois for printing an abolition newspaper (1837), and abolition speakers became accustomed to showers of eggs and stones at public meetings.

Garrison mobbed in the streets of Boston.

277. Growth of the Abolition Movement.—But in spite of all the scorn and contempt heaped upon them, in the North and in the South, the heroic William Lloyd Garrison and his brave followers would not be silenced. They were, like most reformers, extreme in their views and unwise in their methods, but they were right in their leading idea that slavery was wrong. Their sincerity of purpose had its influence, and won the sympathy of many who joined them in forming abolition societies, which by 1837 included probably 150,000 members. Among them were two of the ablest defenders of the anti-slavery crusade, Wendell Phillips, the anti-slavery orator, and John Quincy Adams, the anti-slavery statesman.

278. John Quincy Adams Defends the Right of Petition.—John Quincy Adams was the champion of the sacred right of petition. For many years he stood almost alone in the national House of Representatives in his opposition to slavery. He presented on the floor of the House hundreds of petitions that slavery be abolished in the District of Columbia, and that the slave-trade between the States be stopped.

As these petitions were very displeasing to Southern members, Congress unwisely voted not to receive them. This was not fair play and aroused much sympathy in the North for the abolition movement. The "gag-law," by which the House refused to receive these petitions, continued in effect for many years (1836–1844), but the heroic efforts of the "old man eloquent,'

"Gag-law" in the House of Representatives.

as Adams was rightly called, at last gained for these anti-slavery petitions a respectful consideration (1844).

TO THE PUPIL

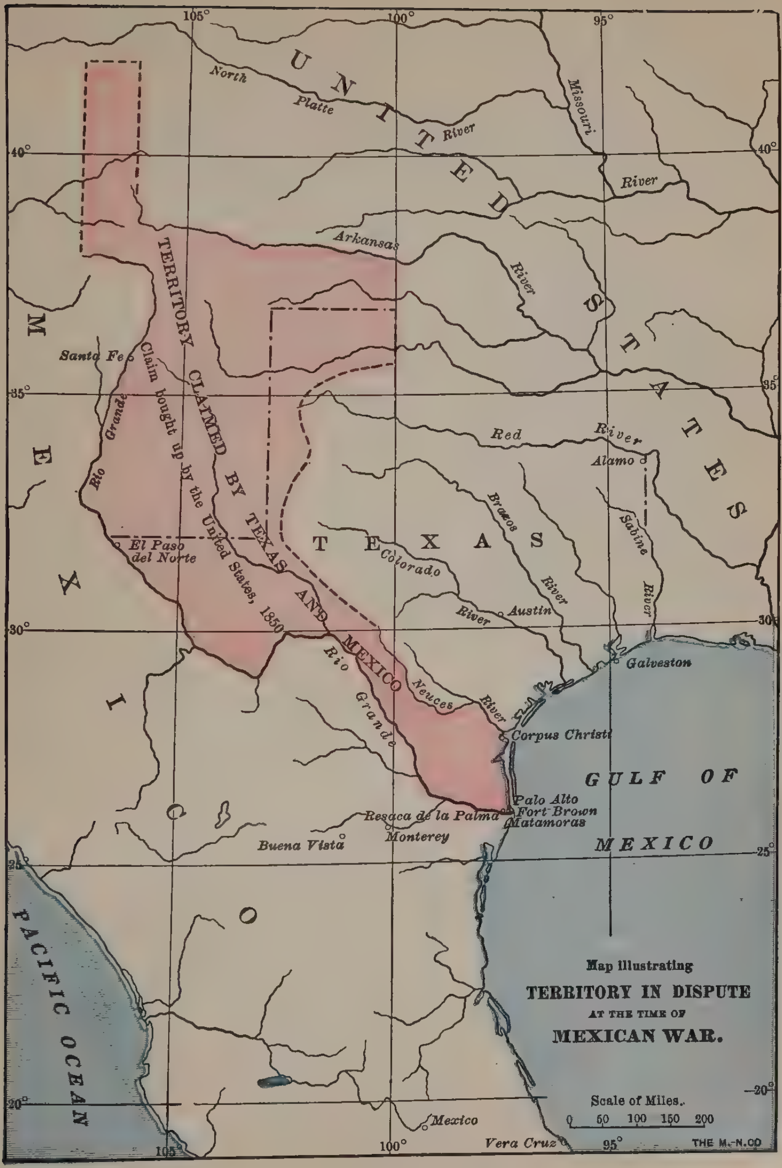
1. What has the telegraph done for the world?
2. Upon what did we base our claim to Oregon?
3. What reason is assigned in the text for the origin of the anti-slavery movement? What position did William Lloyd Garrison take upon the slavery question?
4. How did Southern opposition to the abolitionists express itself? How did Northern opposition? What do you admire in William Lloyd Garrison and his anti-slavery friends? What connection did John Quincy Adams have with the abolition movement?
5. Read the account of his untiring efforts as described in Morse's "John Quincy Adams."

TEXAS AND THE MEXICAN WAR

279. The Annexation of Texas.—About 1820 Southern people began to migrate to Texas, which was then a part of Mexico. By the year 1835 several colonies had been planted by these settlers from the Southern States. Being dissatisfied with Mexican rule the Texans revolted (1835), defeated the Mexicans, and drove them out of Texas. They then declared their independence and sought annexation to the United States.

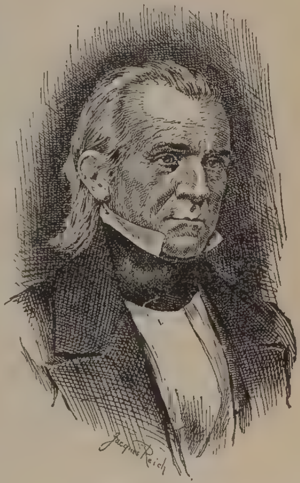
Why the South favored the annexation of Texas.

The South was eager for this annexation, because Texas lay south of the slavery line established by the Missouri Compromise in 1820. If Texas, which was as large as fifty States like Connecticut, could be added to the slave territory of the South, the cause of slavery would be materially strengthened. In time, four or five slave States would be made out of this vast area, and the South would thereby have a larger number of senators. This increase of voting power in the Senate would enable her to maintain, for some years at least, the balance between the slave States and the free States. The North entered a vigorous protest against annexation, but the South won, and Texas entered the Union as a slave State in 1845.



Map illustrating
TERRITORY IN DISPUTE
AT THE TIME OF
MEXICAN WAR.

280. Attitude of the North and the South Toward the Mexican War.—One of the reasons urged by the North against annexation was, that it would cause trouble with the Mexicans, who refused to acknowledge the independence of Texas. But this objection had no weight with the Southern slaveholders. A war with Mexico might result in the acquisition of more slave territory, and hence such a war was not, from their stand-point, undesirable. The North, however, earnestly opposed the acquisition of any more slave territory, and just as earnestly opposed a war with Mexico.


JAMES K. POLK.

281. The Causes of the Mexican War.—Mexico wished to avoid serious trouble with the United States about the annexation of Texas. But before the question could be settled there arose a dispute about the boundary line between Texas and Mexico. Texas claimed the territory to the Rio Grande; Mexico claimed it to the Nueces River. The territory in dispute was large and therefore desirable both to the South and to Mexico. While the difficulty was still under discussion, however, our government took steps that were almost certain to bring on war.

General Taylor advances into the disputed territory.

General Taylor had been sent down in command of American troops to support the cause of Texas, and was ordered to advance into the disputed territory. He did so, taking a position on the Rio Grande at Fort Brown, opposite Matamoras.[1] The Mexicans justly considered this an invasion of their territory and therefore an act of war. It certainly looked

---

[1] Before this time President Polk had sent an envoy to Mexico, whose government refused to receive him. This action of Mexico aroused the resentment of our government.

James K. Polk, eleventh President of the United States (1845–1849), was born

THE STORMING OF CHAPULTEPEC.
An incident in one of the important battles of the Mexican War.

like an attempt to provoke them to make an attack on the American troops. At all events, this was the result of General Taylor's movement. A Mexican force crossed the Rio Grande and killed some American dragoons belonging to a reconnoitring party.

At once President Polk sent to Congress a message in

---

in Mecklenburg County, North Carolina, in 1795, and died in 1849. In 1806 he removed to Tennessee. After being graduated with distinguished honors from the University of North Carolina he entered upon the study of law. He served the State of Tennessee not only as governor but as member of the national House of Representatives. His manners were simple, and his private life sincere and blameless.

which he declared, "War exists notwithstanding all our efforts to avoid it—exists by the act of Mexico herself. Mexico has invaded our territory and shed American blood upon American soil." Congress therefore declared that war existed "by the act of Mexico," and at once sent troops and supplies to invade Mexican territory (1846).

Congress declares war.

282. The Character of the Struggle.—The American plan of campaign was comprehensive. It indicated that the purpose of the war was the conquest of new territory. Although the Americans met with stout opposition from Mexico, the American commanders easily carried out their plans. The war was one-sided. The battles were all won by the Americans, even in cases where the Mexicans greatly outnumbered our troops.

There were many reasons for the defeat of the Mexicans. Their government was weak and poor; their generals were inefficient; and their troops were without discipline and proper equipment. Although the Mexicans were spirited and brave, they were greatly inferior to the Americans in intelligence, dash, and endurance.

283. Results of the War.—In less than two years Mexico was conquered, and her entire territory was at the mercy of the United States. But however unfair our government may have been in bringing on the war with this weak country, it was willing to pay for any territory it might secure. Mexico received more than eighteen million dollars[1] for the cession it made to the United States. Nevertheless, we cannot but regret that our people, distinguished for their keen sense of justice, should have consented to wage this war in the interests of slavery. But the results of the war seemed decidedly favorable to the slaveholders, who thought they had gained a vast region adapted to the use of slave labor.

If we include in the territory acquired by the Mexican war the State of Texas and the parts of Arizona and New

---

[1] The sum paid to Mexico was $15,000,000. The United States also satisfie claims of American citizens against Mexico to the amount of about $3,500,000.

Mexico secured by the Gadsden Purchase[1] a little later, the whole area is equal to more than one hundred and ninety States like Connecticut.

284. The Wilmot Proviso.—But there was another result which made the war a costly one to the United States, and that was the increased bitterness between the two sections over the slavery question. The South insisted that slavery should go into the new territory, and the North insisted that it should not. In fact, this quarrel over the question of slavery in the new territory began even before the war was over. For when in 1846 it seemed pretty evident what the result of the fighting would be, David Wilmot, a representative in Congress from Pennsylvania, proposed that slavery should be forever prohibited in all the territory which should be acquired from Mexico. This was called the Wilmot Proviso. It failed of enactment by Congress, but it expressed a policy which was soon to be made a guiding principle by a great political party. Two years later this principle became the political watchword of the Free Soil Party and later of the Republican Party. The Wilmot Proviso marked the swift approach of the downfall of slavery in the United States.

TO THE PUPIL

1. Why did the South favor the annexation of Texas? What was the attitude of the North and the South toward the Mexican War?
2. What were the causes of this war? How did it begin? Give three reasons why the Mexicans were defeated in every battle.
3. What were the principal results of the war? Including Texas and the Gadsden Purchase, how many States like your own would the whole territory acquired by the Mexican War equal? What was the Wilmot Proviso?
4. Read Thomas Nelson Page's "Old South."

---

[1] In 1853 a treaty was negotiated through James Gadsden which settled the disputed boundary with Mexico. The United States paid $10,000,000 and gained the Mesilla Valley, an area of about twenty million acres. It formed the southern part of what is now New Mexico and Arizona, and became known as the Gadsden Purchase.

THE MEXICAN CESSION AND THE COMPROMISE OF 1850

285. Discovery of Gold in California and Its Results (1848).—California had been valued for its fertile soil and its delightful climate. It had also the fine harbor of San Francisco. These attractions drew a few settlers, who in 1848 made a great discovery. Some workmen, in digging a mill-race for Captain Sutter, a Swiss immigrant, discovered shining particles of gold in a stream flowing into the Sacramento River, about 100 miles northeast of San Francisco. Upon examination of the surrounding country, the soil, the river-beds, and the rocks were found to be rich with gold. It was a wonderful discovery. Before the close of 1861 these mines had yielded more than $500,000,000.

SUTTER'S MILL, WHERE GOLD WAS FIRST FOUND IN CALIFORNIA.

Excitement of the people.

As soon as the news spread abroad people were almost beside themselves with excitement, and at once rushed for the gold region from all the settled parts of the United States. Farmers, carpenters, storekeepers, and professional men were seized with a desire for sudden wealth, and left their work to seek the golden treasure. Vessels coming into the harbors of San Francisco were deserted by their crews, who, with the rest, wildly rushed with pickaxe and shovel to the mines.

The three routes to California.

There were three routes to California from the Eastern States: the first and longest was by vessel around Cape Horn, the trip from New York to San Francisco in 1848 taking about one hundred and thirty days; the second was down to the Isthmus of Panama, across it, and up along the western coast to San Francisco; the third was by slowly moving trains of wagons and ox-carts overland across the country. By this last route it took one hundred days to travel to the valleys of California after reaching the plains west of the Mississippi.

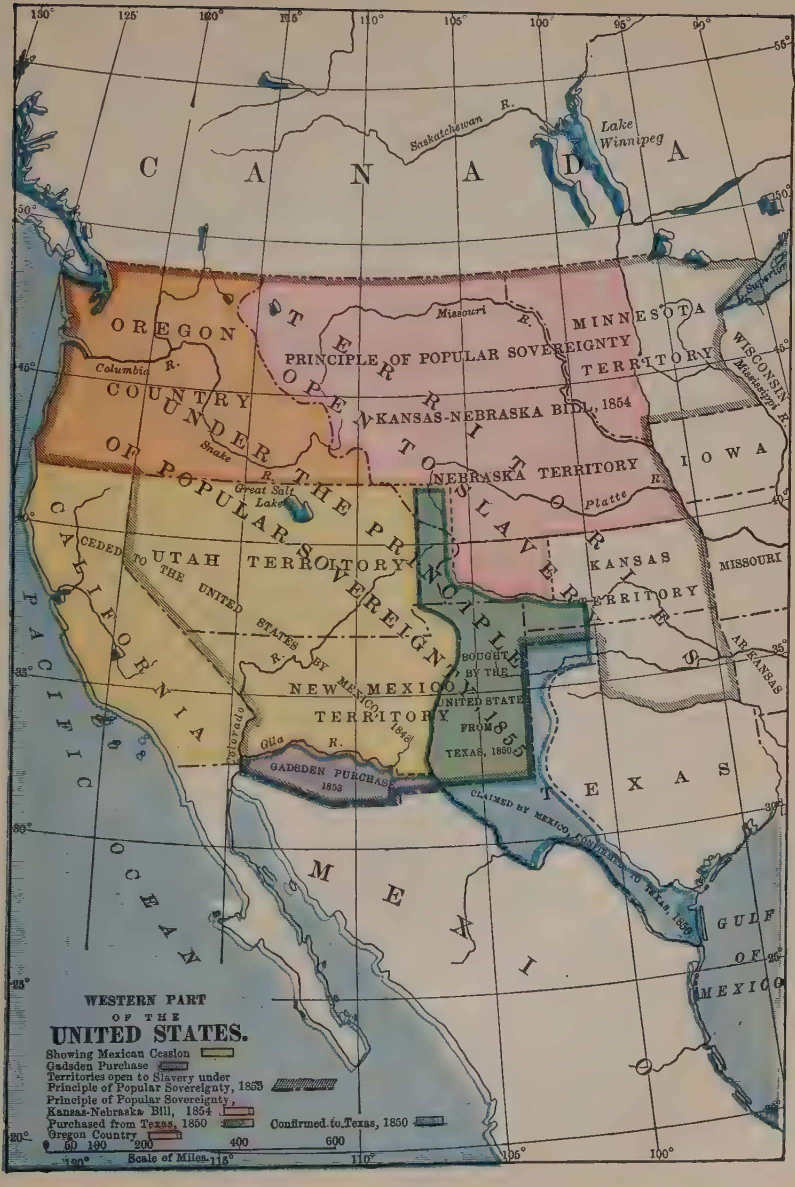
ZACHARY TAYLOR.

The dangers of the overland route.

The difficulties and dangers in crossing the plains and the desert region on the journey were many. The Indians often attacked the emigrants, and in one instance they were encouraged to do so by a few white settlers of southern Utah, who pleaded in palliation that these emigrants had exasperated them beyond endurance. Thousands died on the way, and the bones of human beings, horses, and oxen were strewn along the route. The gold-seekers found the Mormon settlements near the Great Salt Lake of much convenience, as they could there rest in safety and secure fresh supplies to enable them to reach their journey's end.

Results of the discovery of gold in California.

Large numbers of men flocked to the gold regions. In less than eighteen months after the discovery, California had a population of not less than 100,000. In the meantime, San Francisco increased from 2,000 to 20,000 people, and Sacramento from a little cluster of houses to a place of 10,000 inhabitants. The discovery of gold in California had important results:


WESTERN PART OF THE UNITED STATES.
Showing Mexican Cession
Gadsden Purchase
Territories open to Slavery under Principle of Popular Sovereignty, 1855
Principle of Popular Sovereignty, Kansas-Nebraska Bill, 1854
Purchased from Texas, 1850
Confirmed to Texas, 1850
Oregon Country
Scale of Miles.
50 100 200 400 600
CANADA
Saskatchewan R.
Lake Winnipeg
OREGON COUNTRY
Columbia R.
Snake R.
Great Salt Lake
MINNESOTA TERRITORY
WISCONSIN
Mississippi R.
Missouri R.
PRINCIPLE OF POPULAR SOVEREIGNTY
KANSAS-NEBRASKA BILL, 1854
NEBRASKA TERRITORY
Platte R.
IOWA
KANSAS TERRITORY
MISSOURI
ARKANSAS
UTAH TERRITORY
CALIFORNIA
CEDED TO THE UNITED STATES BY MEXICO, 1848
NEW MEXICO TERRITORY
Colorado
Gila R.
R.
GADSDEN PURCHASE 1853
BOUGHT BY THE UNITED STATES FROM TEXAS, 1850
TEXAS
CLAIMED BY MEXICO, CONFIRMED TO TEXAS, 1850
TERRITORY OPEN TO SLAVERY UNDER THE PRINCIPLE OF POPULAR SOVEREIGNTY, 1855
PACIFIC OCEAN
MEXICO
GULF OF MEXICO
Superior
130° 125° 120° 115° 110° 105° 100° 95° 90°
55° 50° 45° 40° 35° 30° 25° 20°

(1) By greatly increasing the gold in circulation, it stimulated trade and commerce; (2) by developing the Pacific coast it led about twenty years later to the building of the first Pacific railroad; (3) it had, as we shall now see, an important bearing upon the slavery question.

286. California Seeks Admission into the Union as a Free State (1849).[1]—In about a year after the discovery of gold there were people enough in California for a State. But Congress had been so busy discussing the slavery question that it had not established any government at all there. This was most unfortunate, for among the gold-diggers there were many thieves and ruffians, who were very disorderly and lawless. Hence the better class of citizens were forced to act without waiting for Congress. They organized a government of their own, established order, and applied for admission into the Union in 1849. As a large majority of the people were from the North, they wished California to be made a free State.

287. Difficult Slavery Questions in 1850.—It will be remembered that the Missouri compromise was called forth by the purchase of the Louisiana Territory. The whole question was opened afresh by the Mexican cession. Should the territory acquired from Mexico be slave, or free? The North argued that inasmuch as this territory had always been free, it should continue to be so. The South was divided in opinion. Some of the Southerners wished to extend the line of the Missouri Compromise, 36° 30′, as a boundary to the Pacific. Others claimed, as in 1820, that Congress had no constitutional right to interfere with slavery; and that the people in the territories ought to be allowed to decide for themselves whether they should come into the Union as free or slave States.

---

[1] Zachary Taylor, twelfth President of the United States (1849–1850), was born in Orange County, Virginia, in 1784, and died in 1850. While he was yet an infant his parents removed to Kentucky, which continued to be his adopted State until 1841, when he made his family home in Baton Rouge, Louisiana. Although his opportunities for education were very limited, his keen desire for knowledge led him to study with care ancient and modern history. He became a daring and skilful soldier, serving his country with great distinction as brigadier-general in the Mexican War. "Old Rough and Ready," as he was fondly called by his many admirers, indicates that he was a popular hero. He died in the second year of his Presidency.

Millard Fillmore, thirteenth President of the United States (1850–1853), was born in Cayuga County. New York, in 1800, and died in 1874. In early youth he learned the meaning of a life of struggle. Like Lincoln and Garfield, he was a poor boy, and like them he overcame, by invincible determination, almost insurmountable difficulties. Until fourteen years of age he worked on a farm nine months of the year, and attended the primitive schools of those times the remaining three. At fourteen he was apprenticed to a trade, but managed to find some time for hard study. Later he studied law, and won for himself an enviable position at the bar. Having been elected Vice-President in 1848, he became President on the death of Zachary Taylor in 1850. His kindly manner and never-failing courtesy made him very popular.

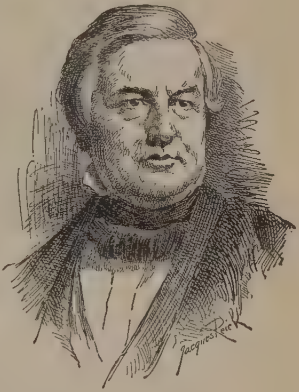
MODES OF TRAVEL IN THE WEST. AN OLD STAGE-COACH AND PRAIRIE SCHOONER.

The settlement of the dispute was one of extreme importance. It involved several points of issue: (1) California wished to come in as a free State, but in that case the balance of power in the Senate would be disturbed. Hence there were strong objections from the South. (2) The anti-slavery men continued to urge upon Congress legislation that would abolish slavery, or, at least, the slave-trade in the District of Columbia. Whether or not Congress had a right to meddle with slavery in the territories, it clearly had a right to enact a measure against slavery in the District of Columbia, which was under the direct control of Congress. We have already seen how John Quincy Adams bravely struggled for years in behalf of legislative action against slavery in this district. (3) The South bitterly complained that the North was violating the Fugitive Slave Law, by aiding the escape of slaves from their masters to Canada.

Slavery in California and the District of Columbia.

All these difficult slavery questions were pressing for satisfactory answers, and many people began to fear a dissolution of the Union. Threats of secession were freely made by some of the more hot-headed proslavery men. It was evident that prompt and wise measures must be taken to quiet the violent feelings among people in both sections.

Threats of secession.



MILLARD FILLMORE.

288. The Compromise of 1850.—Henry Clay had already fairly gained the title of "Peace-maker" by taking a leading part in securing the Missouri Compromise in 1820, and the compromise in 1833 settling the difficulties brought about by the tariff and nullification in South Carolina. In his old age he was again called upon to help meet these new difficulties in 1850. He therefore prepared what was called the Omnibus Bill, because it made provision for settling many questions.

Henry Clay the "Peace-maker."

This famous Omnibus Bill, or Compromise of 1850, contained four essential clauses, two of which favored the North and two the South. They were as follows: (1) California was to be admitted as a free State (for the North); (2) but in the rest of the Mexican cession, divided into the two territories of Utah

The four essential clauses of the Omnibus Bill.

and New Mexico, the people were to decide for themselves whether or not they would have slaves (for the South); (3) the slave-*trade*, not slavery, was to be abolished in the District of Columbia (for the North); (4) but a vigorous and exacting fugitive slave law was to be passed (for the South). Many people thought that this compromise would bring peace and good-will throughout the country.

289. The Fugitive Slave Law and Its Results in the North.—Congress had directed that the Fugitive Slave Law enacted in 1793 should be carried out by the various State governments. As the South charged that the Northern States were neglecting to enforce this law in a proper manner, the fugitive slave clause was inserted in the Compromise of 1850, as has just been stated. In accordance with this clause Congress passed a rigid Fugitive Slave Law, which was to be enforced not by State but by Federal officers.

FUGITIVE SLAVE ADVERTISEMENTS.

By the provisions of this law fugitive slaves, or negroes claimed as fugitive slaves, were to have no trial by jury and were not to be permitted to testify in their own defence. All citizens, if called upon, were required to aid the United States marshal in capturing runaway slaves. Many cases of cruelty, injustice, and violence followed.

The indignation of the North rose to fever heat, and soon the "higher law" of right and justice was openly proclaimed. Some people in the North were ready to defy a law that was in their view cruel and inhuman. They took the same attitude toward the law that South Carolina took in the Nullification Act.

290. Personal Liberty Bills and Their Results in the South.—The outcome of this intense opposition to the Fugitive Slave Law was the passage, by many Northern States, of the Personal Liberty Bills. These laws granted trial by jury to runaway slaves and in other ways protected them from the severity of the Fugitive Slave Law. Naturally these Personal Liberty Laws embittered the Southern slave-holders, who accused the North of a desire to break up slavery. They further asserted that in passing these Personal Liberty Bills the Northern States were nullifying an act of Congress and violating the Constitution.

291. The Underground Railroad.—Some people in the North secretly aided the runaway slaves in escaping to Canada. The fugitives made their way to freedom by means of the so-called "Underground Railroad." The "stations" were the houses of persons who received the negroes at any hour, night or day, giving them food and shelter and keeping them in a safe hiding-place until they could be sent on to the next "station." In this way they were fed and cared for until they reached Canada, the northern end of this strange railroad. It is estimated that over 30,000 fugitive slaves escaped to Canada between 1830 and 1860.

292. Uncle Tom's Cabin (1852).—In the midst of the stirring discussion about slavery "Uncle Tom's Cabin," by Harriet Beecher Stowe, appeared. During the first year after its publication more than 200,000 copies were sold. It was read in all parts of Europe as well as in the United States. It not only appealed to the imagination, but it also touched the heart and conscience. It rapidly caused people to feel that slavery was more than a political question. Through its influence many men and women now joined the abolitionists in the conviction that slavery was a great moral evil.

293. Commodore Perry Secures a Treaty with Japan (1854).—While all this discussion of slavery was going on, Commodore Perry sailed into the ports of Japan with a fleet of steamers. Previous to that time the Japanese had been suspicious of all foreign nations and had refused to trade with them. Commodore Perry won the good-will of these people, and they entered into a treaty of commerce with our country. From that time Japan has been on a most friendly footing with the United States. Through her trade relations with this country and Europe she has come into touch with Western civilization, and has surprised the world by the eagerness with which she has adopted it.

294. **Filibustering Expeditions (1851–1860); The Ostend Manifesto (1854).**—By the admission of California as a free State in 1850 the balance between the free and the slave States was destroyed, for now there were sixteen free to fifteen slave States. The outlook for slavery was so gloomy that the Southerners turned their eyes toward Cuba, as they had turned them, a few years before, toward Texas. Slavery already existed in Cuba, and if the island could be secured to the Union it would furnish two more slave States. Our government was on friendly terms with Spain, and no pretext for war existed when, in 1851, the first filibustering expedition started out from New Orleans. The scheme ended in disaster, but there were still many greedy eyes turned toward Cuba.

FRANKLIN PIERCE.

The slaveholders eager for Cuba.

Some people thought that Spain might be induced by treaty to give it up, and even advocated seizure if it could not be got by cession. In 1854, therefore, the United States ministers to England, France, and Spain, acting under instruction from President Pierce,[1] met at Ostend, Belgium, to discuss the situation. They declared, in the Ostend Manifesto, that Cuba ought to belong to the United States, and that if Spain should refuse to sell it we should secure it by force. It is perhaps unnecessary to say that the United States did not adopt any such policy.

---

[1] Franklin Pierce, fourteenth President of the United States (1853–1857), was born in Hillsborough, New Hampshire, in 1804, and died in 1869. In his class at Bowdoin College, from which he was graduated, were Henry W. Longfellow and Nathaniel Hawthorne, the latter being a life-long friend. Entering the army at the outbreak of the Mexican War, he was so brave that he was promoted to the rank of brigadier-general. After serving in both Houses of Congress he was elected

TO THE PUPIL

1. Trace on your map the three routes to California from the Eastern States. What were the results of the discovery of gold?
2. Explain why California sought admission into the Union as a free State. What were the three difficult slavery questions in 1850?
3. In what way was the Missouri Compromise called forth by the Louisiana Purchase? What question was asked about the Mexican cession? How did the North answer the question? How did the South?
4. What two clauses in the Compromise of 1850 favored the North? What two the South?
5. What was the Fugitive Slave Law, and what were its results? Explain the Personal Liberty Bills and the Underground Railroad. What effect had "Uncle Tom's Cabin" upon the slavery question?
6. What was the purpose of the filibustering expedition? What do you think of the Ostend Manifesto?
7. Read the chapters on slavery in Coffin's "Building the Nation."

THE FIGHT FOR SLAVERY IN THE TERRITORIES

295. **The Kansas-Nebraska Bill** (1854.)—By the Compromise of 1850 the people in all the territory acquired from Mexico, except California, were to decide for themselves whether or not they would have slavery. But this act was not enough. The need of the South for a still further extension of slave territory to offset the rapidly growing power of the free North became more pressing every year.

The South desires a further extension of slave territory.

By the Missouri Compromise of 1820 slavery was forever prohibited in the Louisiana Purchase north and west

---

to the Presidency in 1852. Although he believed in "State Rights" and opposed all anti-slavery movements, he urged the people of New Hampshire, in the stormy days following the attack upon Fort Sumter in 1861, to stand by the Union.

of Missouri, or north of the parallel of 36° 30′. In 1854 Stephen A. Douglas, a Democratic Senator from Illinois, claimed that the Compromise of 1850 had repealed the Missouri Compromise; moreover, that Congress had no Constitutional right in 1820 to shut out slavery from the Louisiana Purchase. He therefore proposed the erection of the two territories of Kansas and Nebraska, in which the settlers should decide whether they would have slavery or not. This measure, known as the Kansas-Nebraska Bill, became a law in 1854.

Results of the Kansas-Nebraska Bill.

It had many important results: (1) It took from Congress all authority over slavery in the territories, and gave this authority to the people; (2) it opened to slavery all the territories belonging to the United States; (3) it led to a bitter struggle over Kansas; (4) and it reopened with renewed bitterness the slavery controversy, which could never again be settled by peaceable means.

296. The Struggle for the Control of Kansas.—Since the people now had authority to decide the question of freedom or slavery in Kansas, both the North and the South made a desperate effort to gain control of the territory. Emigration was no longer a matter of private or personal interests. There were now urgent political reasons why emigration to Kansas should be encouraged from both sections. Meetings were therefore held in many leading Northern cities, and money was raised for the support of emigrant aid societies to send settlers to Kansas. Soon long trains of emigrant wagons were winding their way across the prairies. As Southern sympathizers refused to let them pass across Missouri, they were obliged to go north through Iowa.

Emigrant aid societies in the North.

The South now hastened its preparations to get control of Kansas. But in this struggle it was at a disadvantage, because slave-holders were afraid to risk taking their slaves into a territory that might, by vote of the people, become free. The South, therefore, did not make such an organized effort to settle Kansas as was made in the North.

The pro-slavery men, however, made hasty preparations to do all they could. Arming themselves, they crossed the border and began to plant colonies. Both sides were aroused, and both took part in the plundering, burning, and murdering.

Bloodshed in Kansas.

297. Triumph for the Free-State Men.—On election days Southern sympathizers who came to be called "border ruffians," went over to Kansas in large numbers and cast fraudulent votes in the interests of slavery. By false voting and false counting of ballots the pro-slavery party was for some time ahead. Two rival governments were established. Although the anti-slavery men were clearly in the majority, President Pierce supported the pro-slavery faction and used the influence of the administration to secure the admission of Kansas into the Union as a slave State. But in spite of all that could be done by President Pierce and the pro-slavery leaders, the cause of freedom triumphed. After three years (1855–1858) of this civil war, in what was truly called "Bleeding Kansas," the free-State men won a victory, and Kansas was admitted to the Union in 1861 with an antislavery constitution.

Two rival governments in Kansas.

CHARLES SUMNER.

298. Assault on Charles Sumner (1856).—During the fiery debating in Congress over the difficulties in Kansas, the distinguished anti-slavery leader, Charles Sumner, of Massachusetts, made in the Senate a vigorous speech on the "Crime against Kansas." In this speech he severely attacked Senator Butler, from South Carolina. Sumner's Southern enemies became more intense in their hatred of him than ever before. In the midst of the exciting days which followed, Senator Butler's nephew, Preston S. Brooks, who was a representative in Congress from South Carolina, came

Results of the assault.

suddenly upon Mr. Sumner while writing at his desk in the Senate Chamber and assaulted him. Again and again Brooks struck Sumner over the head with a cane until he reeled and fell senseless to the floor. Sumner did not recover from the shock for over three years. This assault increased the bitterness of feeling and made both sections more determined in their actions.

The Whigs.

299. New Political Parties (1854).—Slavery had brought about in political parties great changes, which we will now briefly consider. In 1833 the National Republican Party (see par. 244) was succeeded by the Whig Party, of which Henry Clay became the leader. This party opposed the Mexican War. At the close of this war many Northern Whigs and Democrats believed in the principle of the Wilmot Proviso—that slavery should be prohibited in all the Mexican cession. They became anti-slavery men and, joining the Abolitionists, formed the Free Soil Party. But while many Northern Whigs became anti-slavery men, many pro-slavery Whigs in the South joined the Democrats. The result was the breaking into fragments of the Whig Party after 1852.

The Republican Party.

The passage of the Kansas-Nebraska Bill (1854) caused still another split in parties. By reason of this measure all voters in the North who opposed the further extension of slavery, whether they had been previously known as Democrats or Free Soilers, called themselves Anti-Nebraska Men. In the following year the "Anti-Nebraska Men" began to be called the Republican Party, which has ever since been known by that name. The corner-stone of the Republican Party was the principle contained in the Wilmot Proviso.

TABLE OF IMMIGRATION FROM EUROPE FOR THE YEARS 1845–1856.

Year.	Number of Immigrants.	Year.	Number of Immigrants.
1845	114,371	1851	379,466
1846	154,416	1852	371,603
1847	234,968	1853	368,645
1848	226,527	1854	427,833
1849	297,024	1855	200,877
1850	310,004	1856	200,436

300. Immigration from Europe.—Before 1840 the total number of foreign immigrants into the United States during any one year never exceeded 100,000. A reference to the immigration table given above will show that from 1845 onward, especially after 1848, the increase was surprisingly great. During almost the whole decade from 1840 to 1850 there was in Europe much unrest, and this led to political disturbances extending through many European countries. In 1846 and 1847 a terrible famine in Ireland caused thousands to seek homes in the United States. The discovery of gold in California, also, had a great influence in stimulating the desire to seek a land where the working man could have prosperity, political freedom, and happiness. As can be seen by noting the rapid increase of population in many of our Western States and Territories, a large number of these immigrants joined the westward movement.

The reasons for the great increase in immigration from Europe.

Table of Population in Western States and Territories in 1840, 1850, and 1860.

States.	Population.		
	1840.	1850.	1860.
Illinois	472,254	846,034	1,704,323
Indiana	478,698	977,154	1,339,000
Iowa	42,924	191,881	673,844
Michigan	211,560	395,071	742,314
Wisconsin	30,749	304,756	774,710
California	......	91,636	361,353
Minnesota	......	6,038	171,864
Utah	......	11,354	40,214
Colorado	......	......	34,231
Kansas	......	......	106,579
Nebraska	......	......	28,759
Oregon	......	......	52,337

Why immigrants would not settle in the South.

It is significant that nearly all of them sought the North. They avoided making their homes in the South, because there labor was servile and degrading. In fact, the slave-holders did not encourage European immigrants to come South because they thought the presence of free white laborers might dissatisfy the slaves with their condition and lead them to rise in insurrection. The slave-holders even guarded against the spread of intelligence among their slaves, on account of the discontent intelligence was sure to bring about among the blacks.

301. Economic and Social Conditions in the South.—We see, then, that slavery in the South prevented the increase of population there by immigration, and thus hindered the most rapid development of its resources. There were reasons, also, within the South's own boundaries, which explain why it did not keep pace with the North in industrial prosperity: (1) The negroes were so lazy and ignorant that they did not work so effectively as they would have done if they had been free and intelligent white men. (2) Since slavery degraded labor, the large class of people in the South known as "poor whites" would work but little. (3) The planters themselves spent most of their time in leisure, leaving their business in charge of overseers.

OLD PLANTATION DAYS.

Three reasons why the South fell behind the North in prosperity.

When we bear in mind that of the three great classes of people in the South—the planters, the poor whites, and the slaves—the planters did nothing, the poor whites as little as they could, and the slaves not more than half as much as the same number of intelligent free laborers would have done, we cannot be surprised that the South was so rapidly outstripped by the North in productive power and therefore in wealth and prosperity.

302. Economic and Social Conditions in the North.—While there were three great classes in the South, there was in the North, so far as production was concerned, but one. In this section nearly all belonged to the working, producing class. In the North, there was the busy hum of industry. A spirit of enterprise, manifesting itself in agriculture, manufacture, trade, and commerce, was everywhere present. All labor was honorable and idlers were few. Such being the industrial conditions, the North was soon far ahead of the South in population, in productive power, and in political influence.

303. Influence of the West in Favor of Nationalism.—Again glancing over the tables of population in some of the Western States and territories from 1840 to 1850 and from 1850 to 1860, we shall see that the increase was very great. Nor was it all due to foreign immigration. Much of it was the result of the large movement of population from the Eastern States. The prairie lands, so fertile and so easily brought under cultivation, invited the laborer to begin life anew where industrial conditions highly favored prosperity. The railroad encouraged the movement by making the transportation of emigrants and goods rapid, easy, and inexpensive.

The prairies and the railroad.

It is worth while to notice that only a small part of this westward emigration was from the South. The West was being rapidly occupied by men who were not in sympathy with the slave-holding planter. Moreover, when these people in the West began to find a market for their corn, wheat, and other produce, they traded with the North because the North had what they needed. The North and the West found mutual profit in trade. With common interests they soon found themselves having common sympathies and common political aims and purposes.

Friendly relations between the North and the West.

Year by year the West became more and more like the North. Her loyalty to the Union was unquestioned. Having received statehood from the national government, the Western States had very little of that State Rights feeling so common in the South. They were first of all Americans, ready to stand up for the preservation of the Union whenever it should be in danger. When the inevitable clash of arms between the North and the South came in 1861, the Westerner was on the side of the North, and shouldered his musket in behalf of a Union which he had unwittingly helped to weld into a solid, indivisible nation.

National feeling in the West.

JAMES BUCHANAN.

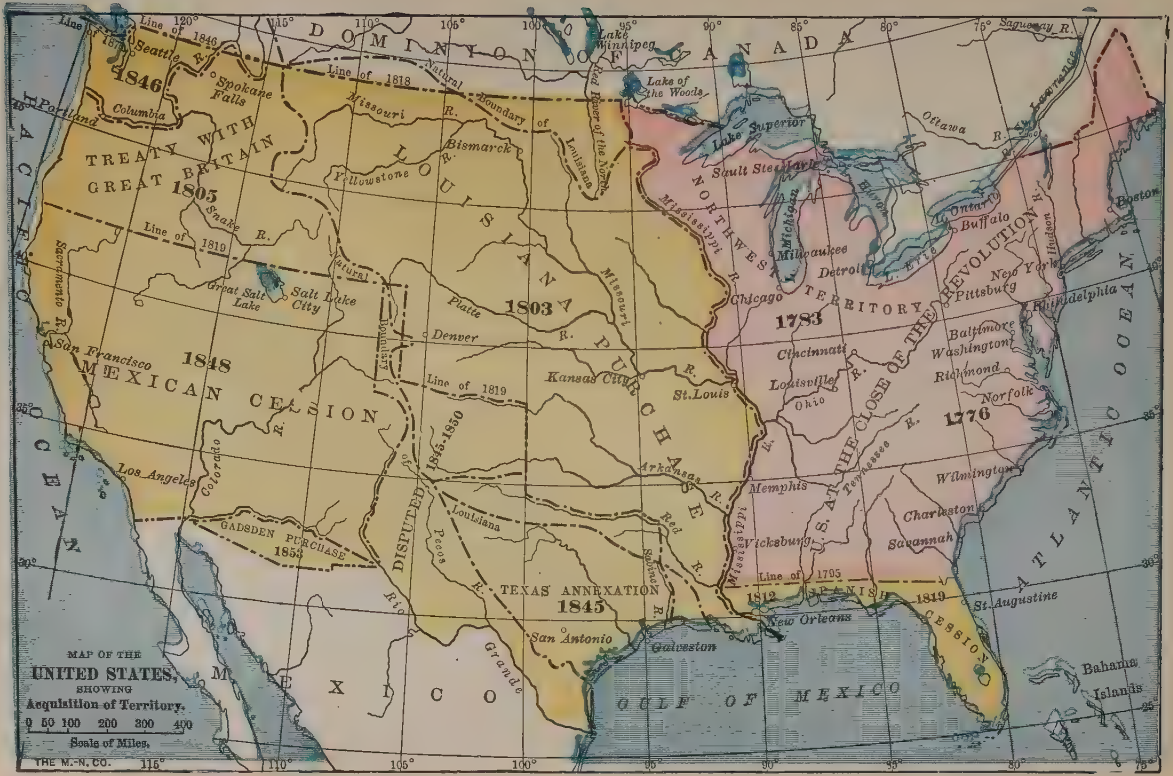
304. The Financial Panic of 1857.—The great financial panics of the last century occurred at intervals of about twenty years. You will recall that the panic of 1837 was preceded by unusual business prosperity. The same condition existed before the panic of 1857. It was easy to get money, and men were seized with the desire to make fortunes by speculating in Western lands. Railroads were built faster than they could get business support. The discovery of gold in California and Australia had increased the money in circulation and thus contributed to the general feeling of prosperity. Extravagance in living followed. Trade was greatly stimulated, and soon there was an over-production of goods. There had been too much credit, and that brought on the panic. In August, 1857, the crash came and everywhere there was great business distress.

Causes of the panic.

305. The Dred Scott Decision (1857).[1]—The Kansas-Nebraska Bill (1854) deprived Congress of all authority over

---

[1] This noted decision was made public in the first year of Buchanan's administration. James Buchanan, fifteenth President of the United States (1857–1861), was



MAP OF THE
UNITED STATES,
SHOWING
Acquisition of Territory.

the question of slavery in the Territories and left it wholly in the hands of the people. Then began the struggle between the two sections for control. It was soon evident that the North, with greatly superior resources, must win the other Territories just as it had won in Kansas.

The principle of popular sovereignty applied to all the Territories.

The South was dismayed at the prospect and looked about for some means of escaping from the apparently hopeless situation. The means was found in the Dred Scott Decision (1857). Dred Scott was a slave belonging to an army surgeon. In 1834 this surgeon went with his slave from Missouri to Illinois, and some years afterward to Minnesota Territory. On the return of master and slave to Missouri, Dred Scott claimed that, inasmuch as he had been taken by his owner into free territory, he himself was a free man. The case was finally tried in the Supreme Court of the United States. The decision supported the position the pro-slavery men had taken.

It declared, in effect, (1) that a slave, according to the Constitution, was not a person but a chattel or mere piece of property; (2) that the Missouri Compromise, forbidding slavery in a part of the Louisiana Purchase, was unconstitutional, since Congress had no right to interfere with slavery in the Territories; (3) and that a master had as much right to take his slave with him into a free State as he had to take his horse, his cow, or any other kind of personal property.

This decision was far-reaching. It meant nothing less than the extension of slavery all over the Union. It intensified the anti-slavery feeling in the North, where many threatened that they would not obey the decision.

306. John Brown's Raid at Harper's Ferry (1859).—John Brown was a thorough-going abolitionist, who had taken a

born near Mercersburg, Pennsylvania, in 1791, and died in 1868. After his graduation from Dickinson College he studied law. He filled many public positions of great responsibility. Besides serving in both Houses of Congress, he became Secretary of State under President Polk and minister to England in Pierce's administration. As President of the United States during the trying years just preceding the Civil War, he was severely blamed by the Unionists because he did not take a firm stand in opposition to the secession movement.

ENGINE HOUSE, HARPER'S FERRY, WHERE JOHN BROWN WAS CAPTURED BY UNITED STATES MARINES.

John Brown and his plan.

prominent part in the struggle for Kansas. He had a strong will, a rugged, intense nature, and was deeply religious. He believed that slavery was a curse to the nation, and that he himself was an instrument in God's hands to put an end to it in this country. The only way to carry out his purpose was, as he thought, to make slave-property insecure. His plan was to aid the slaves in rising and then escaping to the mountains of Virginia, which would become a rallying-place for the negroes. Having this aim in view, in the autumn of 1859, with about twenty followers, he seized the arsenal at Harper's Ferry.

Results of the raid.

His plan met with disastrous failure. He was captured, brought to a speedy trial, and hanged. Throughout his trial he was calm and dignified, and he died bravely. The South was alarmed and angered by this deliberate plan to stir up a general uprising of slaves. A large majority of the Northern people also bitterly condemned it. John Brown's raid increased the misunderstanding and widened the breach between the two sections. The irrepressible conflict was now at hand.

TO THE PUPIL

1. How did the Kansas-Nebraska bill differ from the Missouri Compromise? What important results did it have? What struggle did the North and and South make to get control of Kansas?
2. You can easily see how such a struggle would stir up bitter feelings in the people of the North and of the South. The assault on Charles Sumner illustrates well the intensity and depth of this feeling.
3. You will do well to note that the "Anti-Nebraska Men" banded together on the one issue—that there should be no further extension of slavery. The members of the Republican Party did the same. The fight all along, except in the case of the Abolitionists, was about the extension of slavery into new States.
4. Why did European immigrants refuse to settle in the South? Give three reasons why the South fell behind the North in prosperity.
5. Account for the friendly relations between the North and the West, and for the national feeling in the West.
6. Before taking up the Dred Scott decision review the following topics: Natural boundary between the free and the slave States before the purchase of Louisiana; the Missouri Compromise (1820); the Compromise of 1850; the Kansas-Nebraska Bill (1854).
7. What extreme ground was taken by the slave-holders in the Dred Scott Decision? What were the far-reaching results of this decision?
8. What was John Brown's plan? What were the results of his raid?

CHAPTER XVIII

SECESSION AND THE CIVIL WAR (1860–1865)

REFERENCES: **Scribner's** Popular History of the United States, IV.; **Andrew's** United States, II.; **Burgess's** Civil War and Reconstruction; **Wilson's** Division and Reunion; **Coffin's** Building the Nation; **Richardson's** History of Our Country; **Champlin's** Young Folks' History of the War for the Union; **Barnes's** Popular History of the United States.

OUTSIDE READINGS: **Wilson's** A History of the American People, IV.; **Comte de Paris's** Civil War; **Draper's** Civil War; **Rhodes's** United States, III. and IV.; **Ropes's** Story of the Civil War, I. and II.; **Greeley's** American Conflict; **Alexander H. Stephens's** War Between the States; **Jefferson Davis's** Rise and Fall of the Confederate Government; **Goldwin Smith's** United States; **Pollard's** Lost Cause; **Spear's** The History of Our Navy, IV.; **Morris's** Half Hours with American History, II.; **Ropes's** Army Under Pope; **Doubleday's** Chancellorsville and Gettysburg; **Fiske's** The Mississippi Valley in the Civil War; **Cox's** March to the Sea; **Pond's** Shenandoah Valley; **Coffin's** Drum-Beat of the Nation; **Coffin's** Freedom Triumphant; **Coffin's** Marching to Victory; **Soley's** Sailor Boys of '61; **Soley's** Blockade and Cruisers; **Parker's** Recollections of a Naval Officer; **Hague's** Blockaded Family; **Maury's** Recollections of a Virginian; **Dodge's** Bird's-Eye View of the Civil War; **Johnson's** Short History of the War; **Nicolay** and **Hay's** Abraham Lincoln; **Morse's** Abraham Lincoln; **Brooks's** Abraham Lincoln; **Pratt's** Lincoln in Story; **Tarbell's** Abraham Lincoln; **Grant's** Personal Memoirs; **Adams's** Charles Francis Adams; **Lothrop's** William H. Seward; **Davies's** General Sheridan; **Mahan's** Admiral Farragut; **Lee's** General Lee; **Sherman's** Memoirs; **Sheridan's** Memoirs; **Horne's** General Thomas; **McClellan's** Own Story; **Cooke's** Robert E. Lee; **Cooke's** "Stonewall" Jackson; **Hughes's** Joseph E. Johnston; **Church's** Ericsson; **Goss's** Recollections of a Private; **Trumbull's** War Memories of an Army Chaplain; **Gordon's** Reminiscences of the Civil War; **Hart's** Romance of the Civil War; **Alcott's** Hospital Sketches; **Livermore's** My Story of the War.

FICTION: **Page's** In Ole Virginia; **Page's** Among the Camps; **Page's** Two Little Confederates; **Henty's** With Lee in Virginia; **Trowbridge's** Cudjoe's Cave; **Trowbridge's** Three Scouts; **Trowbridge's** Drummer Boy; **Butterworth's** In the Boyhood of Lincoln; **Goss's** Tom Clifton; **Stoddard's** Battle of New York; **Churchill's** The Crisis.

POETRY: **Holmes's** View of the Loyal North; **Holmes's** Our Country; **Whittier's** Barbara Frietchie; **Harte's** John Burns of Gettysburg; **Read's** Sheridan's Ride; **Work's** Marching through Georgia; Tenting on the Old Camp Ground; **Stoddard's** Burial of Lincoln; **Longfellow's** Decoration Day.

THE WAR BEGINS

307. Slavery Splits the Democratic Party (1860).—By 1860 the question of slavery caused a split in the Democratic Party. The Northern Democrats believed in the principle of *popular sovereignty*, which allowed the people in the territories to decide for themselves whether or not they would have slaves. The Southern Democrats declared that the Constitution imposed upon Congress the duty of *protecting* slavery in the territories, and they supported their view by the Dred Scott Decision. The Republican Party declared that the Constitution imposed upon Congress the duty of *forbidding* slavery in the territories and repudiated the Dred Scott Decision. This party did not at that time favor the abolition of slavery. The great political issue, therefore, in the campaign of 1860 was the extension of slavery into the territories. The Northern Democrats nominated for President Stephen A. Douglas; the Southern Democrats, John C. Breckinridge; and the Republicans, Abraham Lincoln. As the Democratic vote was divided the Republicans elected their candidate.

Slavery in the territories.

308. Abraham Lincoln.[1]—The new President was one of the most remarkable men that the country has produced. While Lincoln was still young, his parents, who were of very humble origin, moved to Indiana. His home surroundings were such as a log hut in the backwoods could furnish, and his advantages were few. He had less than a year's training in the rude schools of the region; yet despite his rough exterior he developed into a youth of manly character. He became known as "Honest Abe." His clear head and good judgment caused him to be selected as a judge to settle disputes among his friends and neighbors. He was six feet four inches in height and a giant in strength.

---

[1] Abraham Lincoln, sixteenth President of the United States (1861–1865), was born in Hardin County, Kentucky, February 12, 1809, and died at the hands of an assassin in 1865. His father, who could neither read nor write, removed to Indiana when his son was only seven years of age, and later to Illinois. After serving as captain in the war with the Black Hawk Indians Lincoln was elected as a member of the Illinois State Legislature. In 1837 he began to practise law and soon became distinguished for his ability as a lawyer. In 1847–1849 he served as Rep-

ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

Patient and persevering.

His opportunities for reading were so limited that it was hard work for him to make much headway with even the few books he could get. But he was patient and persevering in the face of difficulties, and gradually won a great reputation as a debater and public speaker. He had a keen sense of humor, was a good story-teller, and possessed a rare power in winning men over to his views. His magnetic influence, joined to his clear judgment and sincerity of purpose, thus made him a great leader in the affairs of the nation.

309. The Southern Point of View.—Soon after Lincoln's election, South Carolina, the leader in the attempt to dissolve the Union, passed the Ordinance of Secession (December 20, 1860). The Southern leaders did not closely discriminate between Abolitionists like William Lloyd Garrison and John Brown, and Republicans like Seward and Lincoln. Therefore, when the Republican candidate was elected, these leaders naturally thought that

resentative in Congress. He first attracted special attention, however, by his able speech in reply to Stephen A. Douglas on the repeal of the Missouri Compromise. This speech and his great reputation led to his nomination by the Republicans in 1858 for the United States senatorship. Douglas was nominated by the Democrats. The contest was a memorable one. Although Douglas secured the election, Lincoln's brilliant debating with Douglas led to his nomination for the Presidency in 1860.

slavery would thrive better out of the Union than in it. Like Calhoun, Southern leaders in general were more attached to their States than to the Union. And, since they believed that the separate States were possessed of sovereign power, they also believed that any State could withdraw, or secede, from the Union whenever it pleased.

The State first in the South.

310. The Northern Point of View.—The North believed, as Webster had declared (1830), that the Constitution was not a compact between sovereign States but the fundamental law of the nation; that the Union was "now and forever, one and inseparable." With the South the State was first and the Union second: with the North the Union stood first, and no State had a right to secede from the Union against the consent of the other States. According to the latter view, peaceable secession, as Webster said (1850), was impossible. When, therefore, South Carolina passed the Ordinance of Secession, she gave the signal for a terrible struggle in which the life of the nation was threatened.

LINCOLN'S BIRTHPLACE.

The Union first in the North.

311. The Principal Steps toward the Civil War.—The following were the principal steps in the disagreement[1] resulting in Civil War between the North and the South. By reason of an unfavorable soil and climate, slavery did not pay in the North, while it seemed to pay in the South. As the moral sentiment against slavery increased in the North, the South saw that the interests of the slave-holder demanded an extension of slavery into new States. The North objected. This disagreement arrayed the sections against each other.

---

[1] Of course the two sections had long disagreed on the tariff question also. But we have already seen how slavery led to this disagreement.

Steps toward the Civil War.

Finally the Southern slave-holders declared that, since the States were nations with sovereign power, they had a perfect right to secede from the Union and erect a Confederacy. When eleven of the fifteen slave States tried to break up the Union by secession, the free States were determined to preserve the Union, and the result was the Civil War. Before taking up the study of the war, let us notice a few of the conditions under which it was carried on.

312. Secession of the Remaining Cotton States and Organization of the Confederacy.—Within six weeks after the secession of South Carolina, the six other cotton States, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Texas, had likewise seceded. The cotton States naturally seceded first, because there slave labor was more profitable than in other parts of the South. On February 4, 1861, delegates from all these[1] States except Texas met at Montgomery, Alabama, and proceeded to the organization of the "Confederate States of America."[2] Jefferson Davis,[3] of

---

[1] The South was disappointed because some of the slave States did not secede and because the Northern people were so united. The Secessionists did not expect the cause to meet with such firm opposition throughout the North.

[2] The Confederate capital was removed from Montgomery, Alabama, to Richmond, Virginia, on May 20, 1861.

[3] Jefferson Davis was born in Kentucky in 1808, and died in 1889. After graduating from West Point (1828) he served in the army for some years and then became a cotton-planter in Mississippi. He took his seat in Congress in 1845, but again entered the army on the outbreak of the Mexican War. He distinguished himself for bravery in this war, receiving a severe wound at the battle of Buena Vista. He represented his State (Mississippi) in the United States Senate in 1847–51, and was Secretary of War under President Pierce. He again entered the Senate in 1857 and there remained until the beginning of the Civil War, when he resigned. He was elected President of the Southern Confederacy and remained in that office until the end of the war.

Mississippi, was elected President, and Alexander H. Stephens,[1] of Georgia, Vice-President.

313. Advantages of the North.—In this great struggle the North and the South were more evenly matched than is sometimes supposed. The North had many advantages: (1) She had a population of twenty-three millions, while the seceding States had but nine millions, three and a half millions of whom were slaves. (2) She had many factories, by means of which the necessary military supplies could be furnished to her armies. The South had to get her supplies from abroad.[2] (3) The North had a navy that gave her command of the sea, while the South, having put nearly all her energies into the cultivation of rice, cotton, sugar, and tobacco, had few sailors and no navy. Her extensive seacoast and large rivers were therefore open to attack from Northern vessels. (4) The North had also a greater number of able business men and far more wealth than the South. The industrial system of the North had developed men of the highest business ability.

JEFFERSON DAVIS.

314. Advantages of the South.—The South had the following advantages: (1) Fighting on the defensive, on her own soil, she needed fewer soldiers. Generally she could select her own positions behind breastworks and could fight near her base of supplies. On the other hand, many Northern troops were required to garrison strategic points that had been captured in the South. Before the war had closed a large proportion of the Union soldiers were guarding conquered territory. (2) At the beginning of the war the South had most of the experienced generals. (3) Moreover, the Southern people, almost exclusively devoted to the out-door life of agricultural pursuits, were well prepared to endure the severe physical strain demanded of a soldier in time of war. (4) The Southern troops, accustomed to the woods of the South, had a great advantage also in that considerable part of the fighting took place in the woods and wild regions.

---

[1] Alexander H. Stephens was born near Crawfordsville, Georgia, in 1812, and died in 1883. After graduating from the State University at the head of his class, he studied law and soon began his long political career by securing an election to the State Legislature. As a representative in Congress for sixteen years, 1843–59, he proved himself to be a statesman of conspicuous ability. In 1860 he vigorously opposed secession, but when Georgia seceded "he went with his State." He was elected Vice-President of the Southern Confederacy and continued in that position throughout the Civil War. The year before his death he was elected governor of Georgia. He was a man of very slight, frail body, and toward the end of his life had to be wheeled about in a chair.

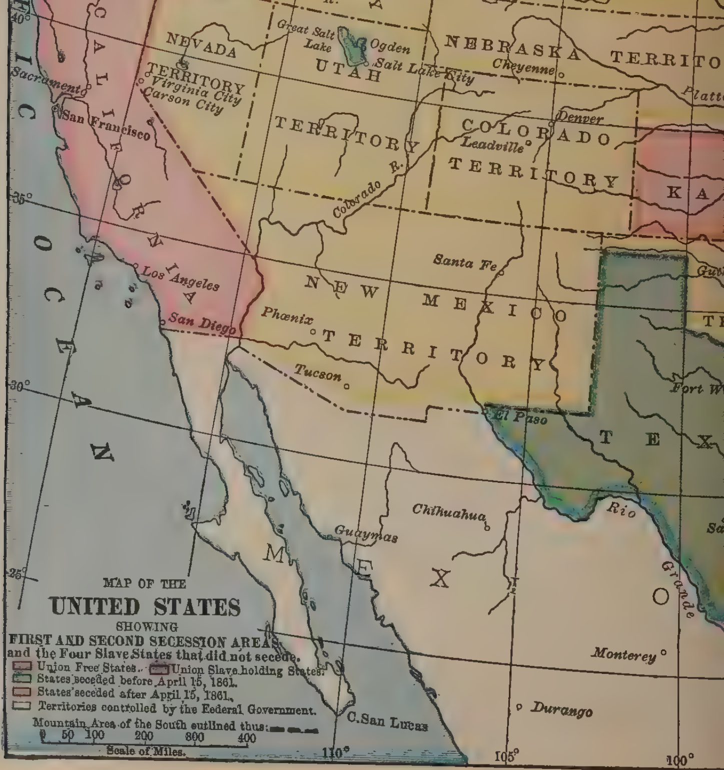
[2] Not until the war was half over did the Confederates succeed in building and equipping the factories necessary for supplying their troops with guns and ammunition.

315. The South Seizes National Property; the Star of the West.—Throughout the area of secession the South at once began to seize custom-houses, forts, arsenals, and all other property belonging to the United States. Some of President Buchanan's Cabinet were Southern men in full sympathy with the secession movement, and they took active measures to aid the South by sending arms and military supplies to Southern forts.

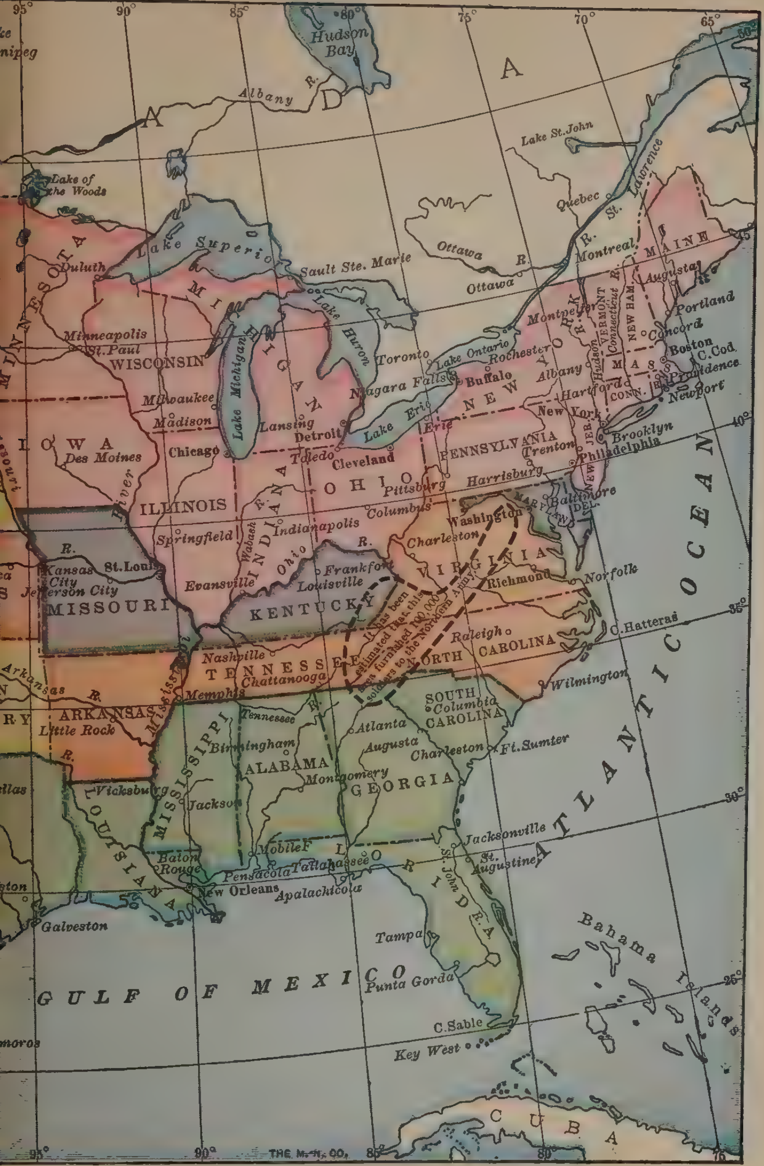
Buchanan's indecision brings disaster upon the Union.

Buchanan did not believe in the right of secession, but neither did he believe that the National government had a right to use coercion. As he was in sympathy with the Southerners on the slavery question, he was unwilling to oppose them by preventing secession. The seceding States were therefore allowed to do much in preparation for war before Lincoln came into office. If the iron-willed Andrew Jackson had been President, in place of Buchanan, secession would probably have been put down before gaining much headway. Buchanan, with unfortunate indecision, let things drift, and by this let-alone policy brought disaster upon the Union.

Before Lincoln's inauguration the South was ready for a terrible struggle. Early in January (1861) President Bu-



MAP OF THE
UNITED STATES
SHOWING
FIRST AND SECOND SECESSION AREAS
and the Four Slave States that did not secede.



It has been estimated that this area furnished 100,000 soldiers to the Northern Army.

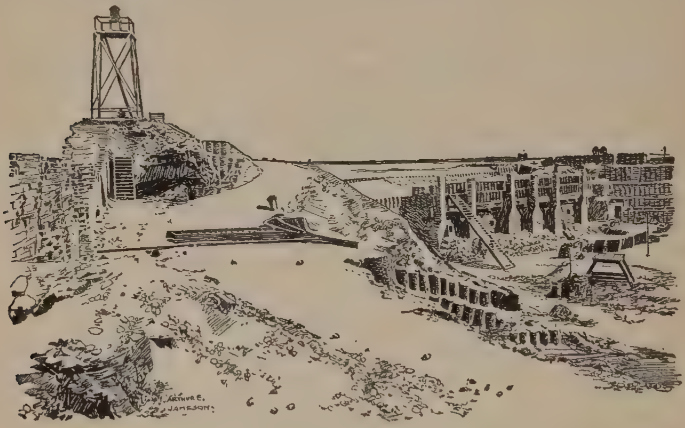
chanan sent the merchant steamer *Star of the West* with men and supplies for Major Anderson of the United States army, who had command at Fort Sumter in Charleston Harbor, but the South Carolina army in Charleston fired upon the steamer and prevented her reaching the fort.

316. Lincoln's Inaugural Address.—The time for decisive action had at last come. In the midst of intense excitement all over the Union Lincoln started from his home in Illinois for Washington. Before reaching Baltimore he was informed that a plan had been laid to assassinate him as he passed through that city. He therefore changed his plans and went to Washington at night on a special train. In his inaugural address (March 4, 1861) he said he had no intention of interfering with slavery, because he thought the Constitution had given him no such authority. But he declared that he would do everything in his power to preserve, protect, and defend the Union. President Lincoln's address was free from bitterness, but left no doubt of the firmness of his purpose to uphold the Constitution.

317. The Confederates Capture Fort Sumter.—Neither the North nor the South wished to strike the first blow, but the South was eager to get possession of Fort Sumter. Major Anderson was in command here with a small force of about eighty fighting men. The Confederates had an opposing army of between 5,000 and 6,000 men. Moreover, Major Anderson had only a small supply of provisions on hand. About one month after the inauguration of Lincoln the latter decided to send supplies to the garrison.

The brave little garrison makes a stubborn defense.

Two days after this decision reached South Carolina General Beauregard, who commanded the Confederate troops in Charleston, demanded the surrender of the fort. When Major Anderson refused, Beauregard opened fire at 4.30 on the morning of April 12, 1861. For thirty-four hours the brave garrison, with little to eat, held out against the overwhelming forces of the enemy. On the morning of the second day the Confederates, firing hot shot, set on fire the barracks and other wood-work in the fort. The flames were dangerously near the powder magazine, and the smoke almost suffocated the soldiers. Falling flat upon the ground, they covered their faces with wet cloths for protection, but would not give up. At last, seeing that there was no hope of supplies reaching the garrison, Major Anderson was compelled to surrender. On Sunday afternoon, the 14th, the Union soldiers saluted the Stars and Stripes with fifty guns, and, with drums beating "Yankee Doodle," marched out of the fort to embark for New York. In this bombardment no one was killed on either side.



INTERIOR OF FORT SUMTER AFTER THE BOMBARDMENT IN 1863.

Results of the attack on Fort Sumter.

The North was ablaze with indignation at the attack on Fort Sumter. Lincoln issued a proclamation calling for 75,000 volunteers (April 15), and declared Southern ports to be in a state of blockade (April 19). Troops flocked to Washington. The North thrilled with martial enthusiasm. The South was surprised. The secessionists had looked for compromise, but war had begun. In the North and in the South alike armies were promptly organized.

318. Secession of Four More States.—When Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Arkansas were called upon to furnish their quota of troops to the National army, they refused. Although these States had not wished to secede, they believed in the right of secession, and therefore when it became certain that the government meant to coerce their sister States to remain in the Union, they voted to secede. The secession area was thus extended over eleven States.[1]

319. Battle of Bull Run.—When, early in July, the Northern army had driven the Confederate forces out of West Virginia, the people in the North became impatient for an advance upon Richmond. General McDowell was in command, in Washington, of a Union army (of about 30,000 men). General Patterson (with about 18,000) was in the Shenandoah Valley watching General Joseph E. Johnston[2] (with 9,000), and the Confederate army, commanded by General Beauregard, with 22,000, was posted at Manassas Junction, about thirty-five miles from Washington, on a little stream called Bull Run. This position was selected by the Confederates because it could be easily reached by rail with men and supplies, and because an advance upon Washington from this point would be easy.

The opposing forces.

Here, on July 21, McDowell made an attack upon the Confederates, in which he seemed at first to be winning a victory by forcing back a part of the Confederates a distance of a mile and a half. At the critical moment, however, the Confederates were reinforced by fresh troops from the Shenandoah, where Johnston had eluded Patterson with his entire army, most of which had joined Beauregard on July 20th. The Federal army fled in a panic toward Washington, but the Southern army, by reason of its crippled condition, made no attempt at pursuit.

---

[1] The remaining slave States, Delaware, Maryland, Kentucky, and Missouri, did not secede. The mountainous parts of western Virginia, not being adapted to the cultivation of rice, cotton, sugar, or tobacco, had no large plantations, and there was not a large ownership of slaves in that part of the State. The people, therefore, did not sympathize with secession, and early in 1861 withdrew from Virginia and organized a separate State government under the name of West Virginia. In June, 1863, West Virginia was admitted to the Union. The attitude of this State toward the war is an interesting illustration of the intimate connection between soil and climate and slavery, and between slavery and secession. In the mountainous regions still farther south many of the people were loyal to the Union. It is estimated that 100,000 of these mountain whites fought in the Northern armies.

[2] Joseph E. Johnston was born in Longwood, Virginia, in 1807, and died in 1891. He was graduated from West Point in the same class with Robert E. Lee, who was ever after his warm, personal friend. Like Lee, he did not favor secession, but "went with his State" when it seceded. Next to Lee he was probably the ablest Confederate general. After his success at the battle of Bull Run he fell into a serious disagreement with Jefferson Davis, the effect of which was to injure the Southern cause. Johnston's defensive campaign in Georgia in 1864, when Sherman was advancing upon Atlanta, showed military ability of a high order.

The Northern army, at first successful, retreats in a panic.

ARTHUR E. JAMESON.

LONG BRIDGE ACROSS THE POTOMAC AT WASHINGTON, D. C.

320. **Results of the Battle of Bull Run.**—This battle probably benefited the North more than it did the South. The Confederates seemed to think the war was over and began to seek their homes. But the defeat caused the North to appreciate the need of putting forth all her energies in preparation for the great struggle which, it was now evident, could not be avoided. General McClellan, who had been very successful in driving the Confederates out of West Virginia, was called from his victories there to organize and drill the army. During the autumn and winter the warring forces were busy fortifying their respective

capitals, Washington and Richmond, and gathering all possible strength for the campaigns of 1862.

321. The Trent Affair.—To secure aid for the Southern cause Mason and Slidell had been selected by the Confederate government as commissioners to England and France. In November, 1861, they escaped the blockade at Charleston and took passage at Havana on the British mail steamer *Trent*. Captain Wilkes, of the United States war-vessel *San Jacinto*, stopped the *Trent* not far from the Bahama Islands, took off Mason and Slidell, and confined them in Fort Warren, in Boston Harbor.

GEORGE B. MCCLELLAN.

322. England Resents the Capture of Mason and Slidell.—For this act Captain Wilkes was greatly applauded by Northern people, but England was highly indignant and at once began to make preparations for war. She sent troops and war-vessels to Canada and was unnecessarily harsh in her demands that the prisoners be given up.

President Lincoln gives up Mason and Slidell.

President Lincoln, knowing that the War of 1812 was brought about mainly because England claimed the right to stop and search neutral American vessels at sea, wisely refused to approve the course taken by Captain Wilkes. Accordingly he at once gave up the prisoners to England, with the statement that Captain Wilkes had acted without any authority from the United States Government. But the North could not help thinking that England was not only insolent in her demands, but over-hasty in her preparations to make war upon us. Ill-feeling between the two countries was thus aroused and was a source of more or less irritation throughout the war.

TO THE PUPIL

1. You are now ready to study the Civil War. Only a few of the great battles are described in this history, but these will enable you to understand the character of the terrible conflict. You do not need to know the details of military movements, but you do need to know what kind of men your country sent to the camp and battle field. Were they brave men? Were they manly, vigorous, and true? Find out as you study the war.
2. How did slavery split the Democratic Party? What did the Republicans think of slavery? Learn all you can about the life and character of Abraham Lincoln.
3. What was the Southern point of view of the Constitution? The Northern point of view? Recall the liberal construction and the strict construction theories of the Constitution in the time of Hamilton and Jefferson. Explain how slavery was the real cause of the war.
4. Why were the cotton States the first to secede? Name the advantages of the North and of the South in the war.
5. What was President Buchanan's attitude toward the secession movement? Contrast this attitude with that of Andrew Jackson toward nullification. What was the result of Buchanan's attitude?
6. Why did the Confederates attack Fort Sumter? Imagine yourself to have been in the fort with the brave little garrison and describe your experience there. What were the results of the attack on Fort Sumter?
7. Why did Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Arkansas secede? Account for the refusal of the people in the western part of Virginia to join their State in the secession movement.
8. Locate on your map the position of the opposing forces just before the Battle of Bull Run. What were the results of this battle?
9. What was the "Trent affair"? Do you think President Lincoln acted wisely in giving up Mason and Slidell? Give reasons for your answer.
10. By reading the opening chapter of Ropes's "Story of the Civil War" you will get a clear idea of the difference between the Northern and the Southern point of view of the Union.

THE NATION IN PERIL

323. **Union Plan of the War.**—Not until the opening of 1862 was a plan of operations matured by the North. This plan, at the outset, was threefold: (1) To blockade

Southern ports; (2) to open the Mississippi; (3) to capture Richmond. The successful carrying out of this plan led also to Sherman's campaign in Georgia in 1864.

324. England and King Cotton.—At the outbreak of the war people at the North supposed they had only the South to deal with. They soon found, however, that they had to contend with an insidious influence from abroad. When Jefferson Davis said, "Cotton is king,"[1] he doubtless thought that England's money and friendship could be secured by her need of cotton. In 1860 the cotton exports, most of which went to English factories, amounted to more than $202,000,000. Many English manufacturers and merchants and 4,000,000 English working people were dependent upon Southern cotton for their means of support. The Southern leaders naturally thought that these English manufacturers and working people would never submit to any action on the part of the North which would cripple their industries. It was therefore expected by the Confederates that the need of cotton in England would win for them the sympathy of the English people.

325. The Blockade.—But from the beginning of the struggle the North was determined to blockade the South so effectually that the latter could neither send cotton to England nor receive in return the much-needed supplies for her soldiers and homes. In the end, as the world knows, the South was forced to give up the struggle because of a lack of the very supplies which cotton alone could procure; in other words, the Confederacy was starved into submission by the blockade. Although, as stated above, the cotton exports in 1860 had amounted to $202,000,000, in 1861 the exports fell in value to $42,000,000, and in 1862 to $4,000,000. In the remaining years of the war the blockade was so effectual that the value of the cotton exports was not worth consideration.

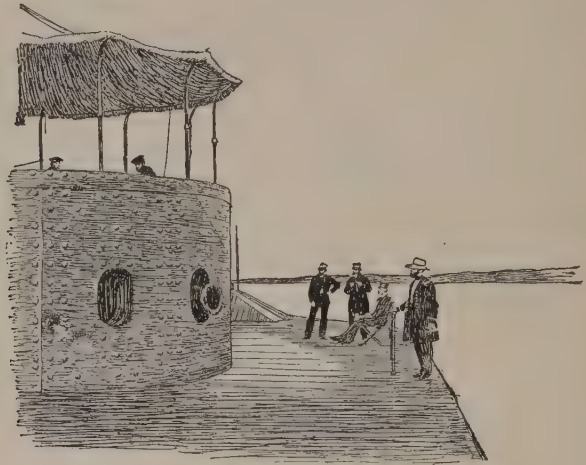
326. The Merrimac and the Monitor.—It was to break the blockade that the *Merrimac* was set afloat. When the

---

[1] At the beginning of the war the cotton States in the South furnished nearly two thirds of all the cotton used in the world.

The Confederates make an iron-clad of the Merrimac.

Norfolk navy-yard was abandoned by the United States Government at the outbreak of the war, among the ships burned and sunk was the frigate *Merrimac.* This had been one of the largest and finest ships in the navy. The Confederates raised her and converted her into an iron-clad. Up to this time very few iron-clad frigates had been built, and none had been tested in war. The Confederate naval officers thought, however, that one iron-clad would be much more effective in reducing the Union navy and raising the blockade than a whole fleet of wooden craft to match those generally in use. The history of the naval duel between the *Merrimac* and the *Monitor* shows how wisely the Confederates planned. The hull of the *Merrimac* was razed to the water's level. The vessel was rebuilt with sloping sides, plated with iron four inches thick, and was furnished with a cast-iron beak and a formidable battery. The *Merrimac* had been many months in construction, and when, about noon of March 8, 1862, she steamed into Hampton Roads, where the United States had a fleet of five powerful war-vessels, she was not wholly unexpected.



DECK OF THE *MONITOR.*

In advancing to meet her, three of the blockading squadron ran aground on account of low water. But the *Congress* and the *Cumberland*, supported by the batteries on the shore, made ready for the attack. They poured broadside after broadside into the *Merrimac* as she approached. The balls rebounded from her iron sides with no effect. The *Merrimac* steered straight for the *Cumberland*, discharging a broadside into the *Congress* in passing. Continuing her fire she rammed her iron beak into the *Cumberland's* side, making a great hole, into which the water rushed. The crew of the *Cumberland* continued firing until they reached the water's edge, and when they went down their colors were still flying. The *Merrimac* then turned to the *Congress*, poured hot shot into her, set her afire, and forced her to surrender. At nightfall the *Merrimac* steamed back to her landing, expecting to complete her work of destruction the following day.

The Merrimac plays havoc with the blockading squadron.

Great was the joy in the South that night, and great was the consternation in the North. Statesmen were grave, the people terrified. The blockade was broken at Norfolk. Soon it might be broken at other ports, and Northern commerce might be ruined by the ravages of this invulnerable sea-monster.

Consternation in the North.

But in history, as in fiction, it is the unexpected that often happens. That night a strange-looking craft came into the harbor. It was Ericsson's *Monitor*, which had been completed in New York two days before. The *Monitor* was an experiment, and her construction had been pushed with desperate energy, that she might be ready as soon as the *Merrimac*. She was built with an iron-plated deck almost level with the water, and had a revolving iron turret with two powerful guns. The purpose of this peculiar construction was to present as little resisting surface as possible to the enemy's guns. The Confederates well described her appearance when they said she looked like a Yankee cheese-box on a raft. She had arrived just in time.

The Monitor arrives just in time.

The following morning the *Merrimac* steamed out of

Norfolk confident of a victory over the other three frigates. She steered for the *Minnesota*, by the side of which the *Monitor* was lying, and soon found that she had a new adversary to deal with. The *Monitor* steered straight for the *Merrimac*, and one of the strangest naval battles ever fought began. The duel continued over three hours. At points the *Merrimac's* armor was crushed but not pierced. Captain Worden of the *Monitor* received a wound which delayed the action for a little, and the *Merrimac* withdrew. Neither side cared to continue the struggle. The *Merrimac* had met her match and made no further attempt to break the blockade. The sturdy little *Monitor* had saved the Union.

The sturdy little Monitor saves the Union.

This fight revolutionized naval warfare, for it showed that the days of wooden war-vessels were at an end. Against such iron-clads as the *Monitor* and the *Merrimac* wooden vessels of the finest type were useless.[1]

327. The Importance of the Mississippi.—In order to cut off the South from communication with the rest of the world, it was necessary not only to maintain the blockade but to gain possession of the Mississippi River. For by way of Mexico trade was kept up with European countries to some extent. Other advantages would be secured to the North by getting control of this river: (1) Such control would cut the Confederacy in two, making Texas, Arkansas, and Louisiana of little use to the Southern cause; (2) it would prevent the South from getting supplies of any sort from the region west of the Mississippi; (3) it would enable the North to use her navy to great advantage in concentrating troops in the rear of the Confederacy and in getting supplies to her armies in that region; (4) it would open the Mississippi to the trade of the West and the Northwest.

Why the North desired to get control of the Mississippi.

---

[1] Neither of these famous iron-clads ever again took part in a battle. When, two months later, McClellan forced the Confederates to evacuate Norfolk, they destroyed the *Merrimac*, which drew so much water that she could not steam up the James River to Richmond. In December of the same year the *Monitor* went down, with most of her crew, in a storm off Cape Hatteras, North Carolina.

THE BATTLE BETWEEN THE MONITOR AND THE MERRIMAC.

328. Capture of Forts Henry and Donelson.—It was one thing to cut off the South from the rest of the world; it was quite another to get possession of her vast territory. But this last was necessary also. Early in the war the Confederates had been driven from West Virginia and from Missouri. In the winter and spring of 1862 the Federal generals began a series of movements whose twofold purpose was to open the Mississippi to the North and gain possession of Tennessee.

The Confederate line of defence.

To defend Tennessee, the Confederates had built Fort Henry on the Tennessee and Fort Donelson on the Cumberland. Their line of defence, as will be seen by consulting the map, extended from Columbus through Forts Henry and Donelson, Bowling Green, and Mill Springs, to Cumberland Gap. To break this line of defence, it was necessary for the North to capture Forts Henry and Donelson. By capturing the two forts the two important rivers would be under the control of Northern vessels, and Nashville would have to be abandoned by the Confederates. Columbus, when cut off from support, would also have to be given up without a struggle.

With all these things in view, General Grant, with the aid of Commodore Foote, moved upon the two forts. Commodore Foote soon captured Fort Henry (February 6); and General Grant,[1] after a hard fight, received the surrender of Fort Donelson with nearly 15,000 prisoners (February 16). By this important victory the first Southern line of defence in the West was thus broken, and Columbus and Nashville fell into the hands of the Federals.

329. The Battle of Pittsburg Landing (or Shiloh).—The Confederates now fell back upon another line of defence, extending from Memphis, through Corinth, an important railroad centre, to Chattanooga. Under General Albert Sidney Johnston, the Confederate army, 40,000 strong, took position at

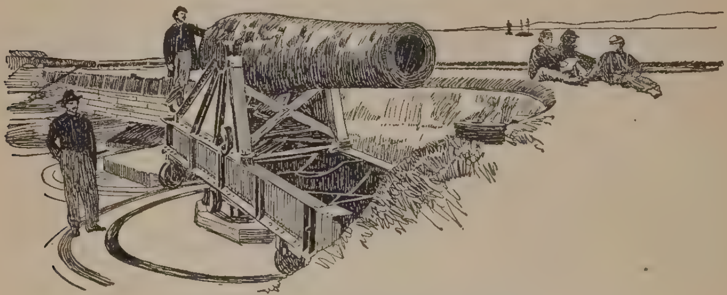
General Grant at Pittsburg Landing waits for General Buell.

---

[1] When General Buckner sent to Grant for terms of surrender the following answer was sent: "No terms except unconditional and immediate surrender can be accepted. I propose to move immediately upon your works."

Corinth. General Grant, with 33,000 men, advanced as far as Pittsburg Landing on the Tennessee River, about twenty-four miles from Corinth. Here he waited for Buell, who was hastening from Nashville to join him with an army of 27,000 men. On Buell's arrival the Federal army was to attack Johnston's forces at Corinth.

Before Buell could reach Pittsburg Landing, however, Johnston attacked Grant early on Sunday morning, April 6. It was a terrible day. By nightfall the Confederates had driven Grant's troops back a mile and a half toward the river. But before morning Buell's fresh troops had come up, and they assisted Grant in driving the Confederates from the field. In this battle about 20,000 men were killed or wounded. Among the killed was General Albert Sidney Johnston, whose death was a serious loss to the South.



PARAPET AT FORTRESS MONROE.

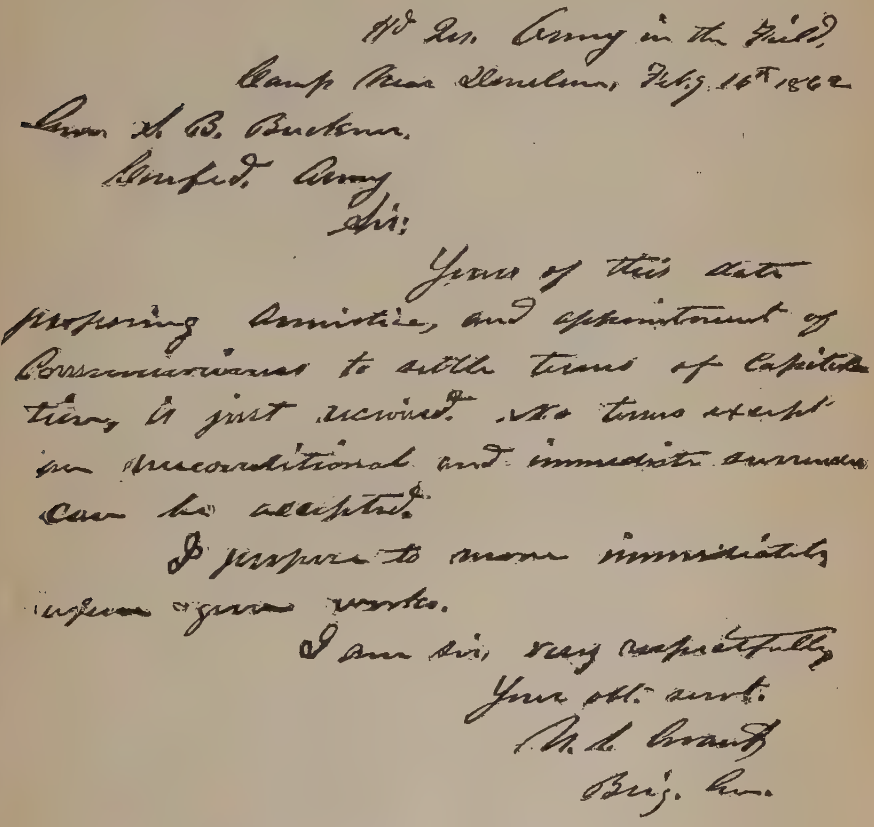
Grant wins a victory.

330. Capture of New Orleans.—New Orleans was important to the South because it controlled the lower Mississippi. Thirty miles from the mouth of the river were two forts nearly opposite each other. Between them were stretched across the river immense chains fastened to the hulks of old vessels. A little farther up the river was a strong fleet, which included a formidable iron-clad ram like the *Merrimac* and a floating battery covered with railroad iron. There were also fire-rafts ready to be turned loose upon the Federal vessels.

Confederate defences.

Farragut runs by the forts.

Commodore Farragut, who was in command of a fleet of nearly fifty wooden vessels that was to attack these forts, advanced up the river to New Orleans. There General Butler, with an army of 15,000 men, was to aid in getting possession of the city. After bombarding the forts for six days without making much impression, Farragut determined to run by them at night. It was a desperate undertaking, but it succeeded, and easily



Hd Qrs. Army in the Field,
Camp Near Donelson, Feby. 16th 1862

Gen. S. B. Buckner,
Confed. Army
Sir:

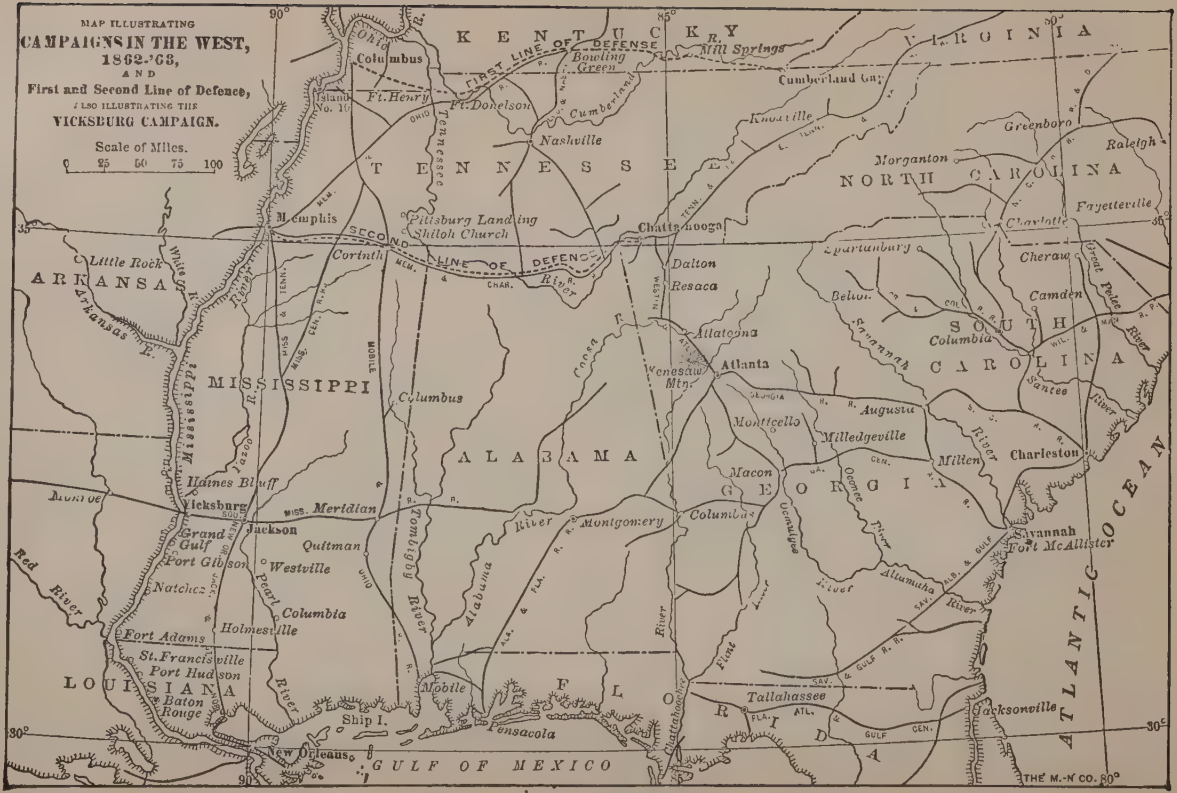
Yours of this date proposing Armistice, and appointment of Commissioners to settle terms of Capitulation, is just received. No terms except an unconditional and immediate surrender can be accepted.

I propose to move immediately upon your works.

I am sir, very respectfully
Your obt. servt.
U. S. Grant
Brig. Gen.

GRANT'S "UNCONDITIONAL SURRENDER" LETTER.

By permission of General James Grant Wilson.



MAP ILLUSTRATING
CAMPAIGNS IN THE WEST,
1862-'63,
AND
First and Second Line of Defence,
ALSO ILLUSTRATING THE
VICKSBURG CAMPAIGN.

brought New Orleans into the possession of the Union forces (April 25). With the aid of the river gunboats the Federals had, before the close of 1862, opened the river as far down as Vicksburg. This city and Port Hudson alone remained in possession of the Confederacy.

331. The Peninsular Campaign (1862).—These brilliant victories were in marked contrast with the failure of the army under General McClellan. As we have already seen, he was placed in command of the Army of the Potomac, which was intended for the defence of Washington and the capture of Richmond. Before the opening of the spring campaign in 1862, he had, by thorough organization and drill, created a splendid army.

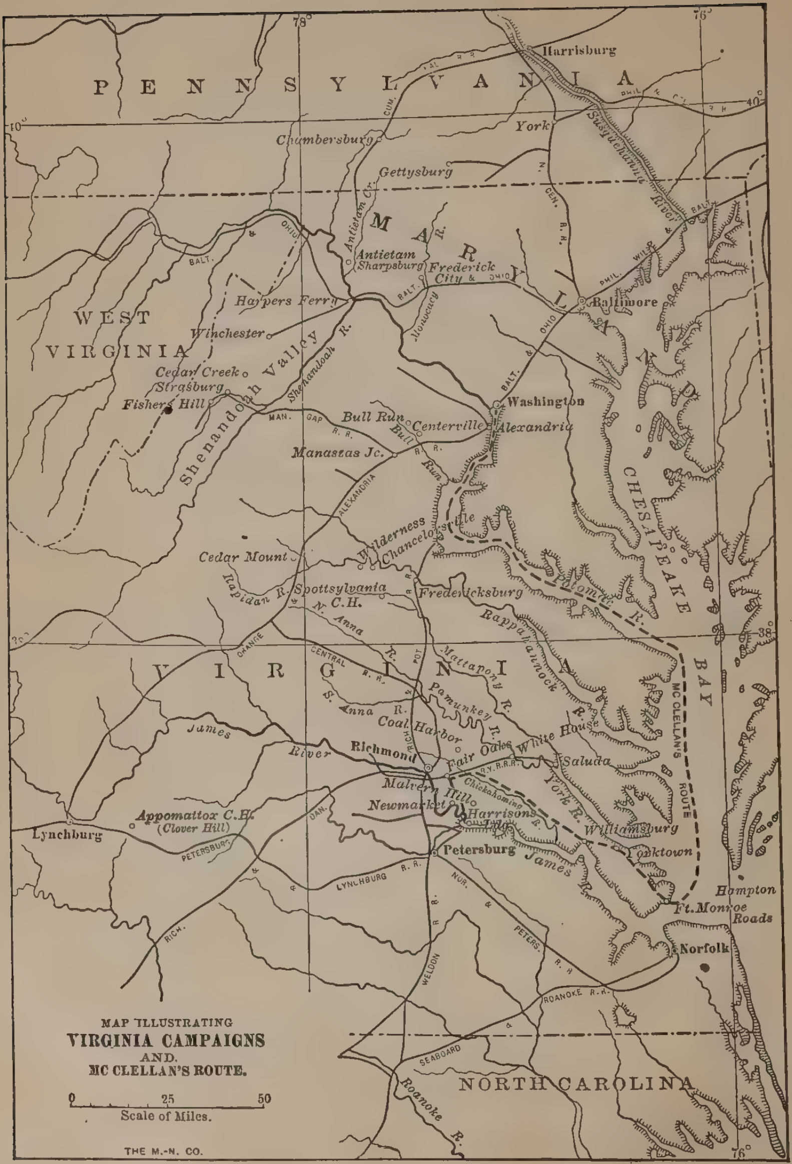
McClellan creates a splendid army.

His original plan was to approach Richmond by the James River. Lincoln opposed this because he thought that Washington would thus be exposed to attack. He therefore urged the wisdom of approaching Richmond overland from the north, in order to keep the Federal army between the Confederates and Washington. McClellan objected because there were so many rivers to be crossed, every one of which could, for defensive purposes, be made a Confederate stronghold. The swampy forests of this region were also in the same way of great value to the South. It is no exaggeration to say that these natural advantages were worth many thousand troops to the Confederate army, and it is unfair to McClellan and Grant not to take them into account. McClellan adopted neither Lincoln's plan nor his own, but compromised by approaching Richmond by way of the peninsula between the James and the York Rivers, making his base of supplies on the latter.

McClellan objects to Lincoln's plan.

McDowell was stationed near Fredericksburg, between the main Confederate army and Washington. In this position he could protect Washington or unite with McClellan, as occasion required. To prevent an attack upon the capital by way of the Shenandoah, well known during the war as the "back

McDowell stationed at Fredericksburg.



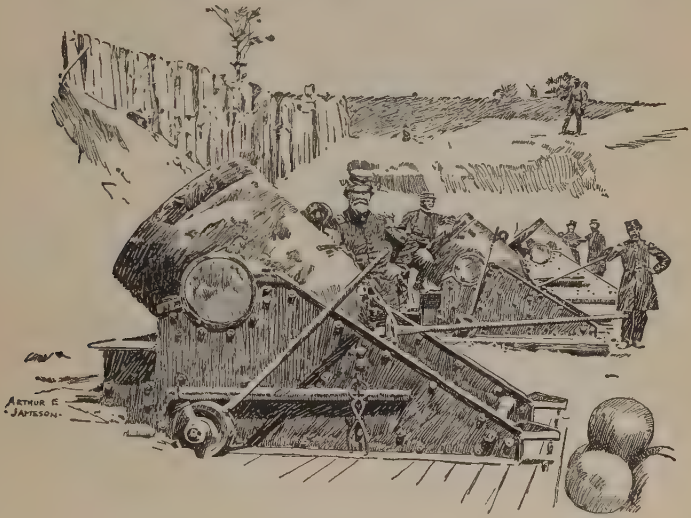
MAP ILLUSTRATING
VIRGINIA CAMPAIGNS
AND
MC CLELLAN'S ROUTE.

0 25 50
Scale of Miles.

door to Washington," Union forces were stationed there under Banks and Frémont.

McClellan stops for a month at Yorktown.

332. McClellan Advances up the Peninsula.—Starting at Fortress Monroe on April 4, 1862, McClellan, with 120,000 troops, advanced along the York River to Yorktown. Here, instead of storming the town, he laid siege to it. When he was ready for an assault, the Confederates, having held him in check for a month, withdrew, and thus gained time to strengthen their defences about Richmond. McClellan hurried after them and fought an indecisive battle at Williamsburg, from which the Confederates retired toward their capital. McClellan then advanced slowly, and by the end of May found himself within ten miles of Richmond. By that time the Confederates defending Richmond numbered 70,000.


ARTHUR E. JAMESON.

A MORTAR BATTERY IN FRONT OF YORKTOWN.

Dividing his army, McClellan encamped upon both sides of the Chickahominy. He made this arrangement so as to establish easy connection between his north wing and McDowell, who (with 45,000 men) was near Fredericksburg with orders to be in readiness to unite with McClellan. Heavy rains caused the Chickahominy to swell, thus separating the two wings. General Johnston took advantage of the situation to attack the division south of the river at Fair Oaks (Seven Pines), and threatened to overwhelm it, but McClellan got reinforcements across and stayed the retreat.

Battle of Fair Oaks.

333. **"Stonewall" Jackson in the Shenandoah Valley; McClellan Changes his Base of Supplies.**—In order to prevent McDowell from joining McClellan, General Robert E. Lee, who was now in command of the Confederates,[1] sent "Stonewall" Jackson down the Shenandoah Valley to threaten Washington. Jackson defeated Banks and Frémont, and so thoroughly alarmed Lincoln that the latter ordered McDowell to return to the defence of Washington. After playing havoc with the Union forces in the Shenandoah Jackson hastily joined Lee.

Now that McDowell was prevented from joining the attack upon Richmond, McClellan changed his base of supplies to the James River. During the week that he was transferring the army to the new base of supplies the terrible "Seven Days' Battles," in which McClellan lost 15,000 men, were fought. At Malvern Hill, the field of the last of these engagements, Lee repeat-

The "Seven Days' Battles."

---

[1] Lee had succeeded General Joseph E. Johnston, who was wounded in the battle of Fair Oaks (May 31).

Robert E. Lee, son of Henry Lee, or "Light-Horse Harry," of Revolutionary fame, was born in Westmoreland County, Virginia, in 1807, and died in 1870. He was graduated from West Point in 1829, ranking second in a class of forty-six. He distinguished himself for bravery in the Mexican War and rose to the rank of colonel. After Virginia seceded in 1861 Lee decided "to go with his State." He therefore resigned his commission in the army of the United States, and a little later took command of the Virginia State troops. When, at the battle of Seven Pines, or Fair Oaks (1862), General Joseph E. Johnston received a serious wound that temporarily unfitted him for active service, Lee was put at the head of the Confederate army. From that time to the end of the war he was the leading Confederate general and handled his troops with consummate ability. Military critics rank him and Grant as two of the foremost commanders of this century. Lee won the confidence of the Southern people, who regarded him with unbounded admiration and affection. At the close of the war he became president of what is now Washington and Lee University, where he spent the remaining years of his life.

edly charged but was driven back with fearful slaughter. The Army of the Potomac fought here with magnificent heroism. Had McClellan taken immediate advantage of this victory he might, by a vigorous attack, have captured Richmond. As a whole, the Peninsular Campaign failed and caused bitter disappointment in the North.

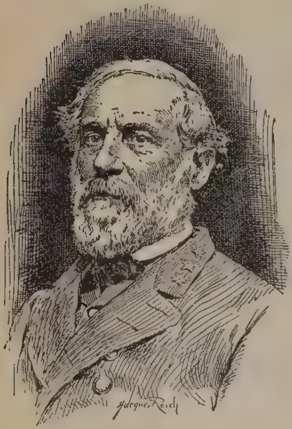
334. **Lee's First Invasion of the North** (1862).—McClellan made no further attempt upon Richmond. In the meantime Halleck had been put in chief command of the Union armies. Pope was appointed to take command of the forces in northern Virginia and McClellan was ordered to join him. Before McClellan could reach Pope, however, Lee pushed north. He united his forces with "Stonewall" Jackson's, which had been sent to surprise Pope's rear. After defeating Pope in the second battle of Bull Run he marched across the Potomac into Maryland, where he thought he would receive large recruits. In this he was disappointed. The great majority of the Maryland people were loyal to the Union, and

A FEDERAL BATTERY IN THE FIELD.

Second Battle of Bull Run.

plainly showed this in their attitude toward the invasion. When Lee's men marched into the State singing "My Maryland" there was not a word of welcome from the people. On reaching Frederick, Lee was surprised to find not only places of business shut, but even the doors closed and the blinds drawn. The North, however, fearing an attack upon Baltimore, Washington, or Philadelphia, was greatly alarmed.

Maryland people loyal to the Union.



ROBERT E. LEE.

335. **Battle of Antietam (September 17, 1862).**—After Pope's defeat in the second battle of Bull Run, McClellan, having united Pope's army with the Army of the Potomac, started in pursuit of Lee. On September 17, with an army of 70,000, he attacked Lee, who, with about 40,000, had taken his position at Sharpsburg, behind Antietam Creek. This battle was one of the bloodiest of the war. Although Lee successfully defended himself against the attack of the Union army, he had to retreat into Virginia without having gained anything by his first invasion of the North.

Lee retreats into Virginia.

Some people thought McClellan ought to have routed or captured Lee's army. As he did not follow the Confederates he was severely criticised for being slow and overcautious, and was superseded by Burnside. Burnside was as rash as McClellan was cautious, and later in the autumn met a crushing defeat when he attacked Lee, who was intrenched in a strong position at Fredericksburg. The year's operations had been successful for the Union cause in the West, but unsuccessful in the East.[1]

Burnside, who supersedes McClellan, is defeated at Fredericksburg.

---

[1] One of the bloodiest battles of the war was fought at the end of this year at Murfreesboro, Tennessee. Beginning December 31 (1862), it lasted three days, and resulted in the retreat of the Confederates after the most stubborn fighting.

TO THE PUPIL

1. What was the Union plan of the war? In what way did Jefferson Davis think that the cotton trade would secure the friendship of England for the Southern cause? Why was it extremely important for the North to blockade the South?
2. What did the Merrimac accomplish on the first day she attacked the blockading squadron? What were the results of the fight between the Merrimac and the Monitor?
3. Name four or five advantages to the North in securing control of the Mississippi. What purpose had the Confederates in building Forts Henry and Donelson? What effect did the capture of these forts by the Federals have upon the Confederate line of defence?
4. What was the second Confederate line of defence? What were the causes and results of the Battle of Shiloh? Why was New Orleans of importance to the South?
5. Are you making constant use of your map?
6. What was McClellan's plan of approaching Richmond? What was Lincoln's? Which do you think was the better plan? Give reasons for your answer. For defensive purposes, what natural advantages had the Confederates in Virginia? Why was General McDowell left at Fredericksburg?
7. Point out on the map Yorktown and Williamsburg, and show their connection with McClellan's advance upon Richmond. What was the purpose of "Stonewall" Jackson's movements in the Shenandoah? What was the result?
8. After reading as much as you can on the Peninsular Campaign, give reasons for McClellan's failure to capture Richmond.
9. Why did Lee decide to invade the North? How was he disappointed? What were the results of the Battle of Antietam?

THE TIDE TURNS

336. Lee's Second Invasion of the North; Battle of Gettysburg (1863).—After Burnside's repulse at Fredericksburg in December, 1862, he retired to winter quarters. Before the campaign of 1863 opened Hooker was put in command. In April he advanced to Chancellorsville with 113,000 men, and attacked Lee, who had 62,000.[1] Lee again badly defeated the Army

Hooker's defeat at Chancellorsville.

---

[1] In this battle the Confederates met with a grievous loss in the death of "Stonewall" Jackson. Through a mistake he was fired upon by some of his own men. Thomas J. Jackson, often called "Stonewall" Jackson, was born in 1824, in Har-

of the Potomac. These two victories made the South jubilant, but depressed the North.

Lee's reasons for invading the North in 1863.

With an exultant and confident army Lee planned to invade the North a second time. Early in June he marched down the Shenandoah, crossed the Potomac, and advanced into Pennsylvania. The whole country was wild with excitement. Lee hoped to win a decisive victory, capture Baltimore or some other great Northern city, and dictate terms of peace. He had reason to believe that a victory on Northern soil would lead England and France to recognize the independence of the South. These two countries were only waiting until some pronounced success on the part of the South should afford them a reasonable excuse for giving such recognition.

ARTHUR E. JAMESON.

FUGITIVE NEGROES FORDING THE RAPPAHANNOCK.

rison County, Virginia (now West Virginia), and was graduated from West Point in 1846. He took part in the Mexican War, where he was promoted for good conduct. He resigned from the army in 1851, on receiving an appointment as professor in the Virginia Military Institute, at Lexington, Virginia. He was so eccentric that he became unpopular with the students, who did not regard him as a man of ability. Although he was opposed to secession he thoroughly believed in State rights, and therefore "went with his State" when it seceded. As soon as he took command of troops on the battle field he showed himself to be a splendid soldier. By his stubborn bravery at Bull Run he won the name of "Stonewall" Jackson, and rose at once to the rank of major-general. He was Lee's ablest subordinate, and, next to Lee, was probably the most popular Confederate general.

Lee's advance.

Lee advanced his army toward Chambersburg and encamped in that vicinity. Hooker crossed the Potomac east of the mountains, marched north to Frederick, and sent a detachment west through the mountains to menace Lee's line of supplies. In order to draw off the Union forces from his rear, Lee marched eastward to threaten Washington. On the very same morning Meade, who had superseded Hooker, started north from Frederick, keeping east of the mountains to protect Washington. The two armies were thus marching toward each other, and each was ignorant of the other's movements. They unexpectedly met at Gettysburg and fought a three-days' battle (July 1, 2, and 3).

The two armies meet at Gettysburg.

THOMAS J. ("STONEWALL") JACKSON.

The first day.

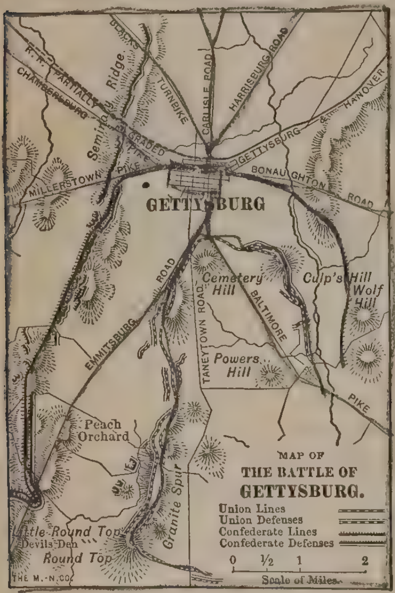
On the first day the advance forces of the Union army, being greatly outnumbered, were driven through Gettysburg with a loss of 5,000 prisoners. The Confederates also suffered heavy loss in killed and wounded. That night the Union army took a strong position on Cemetery Ridge, just south of the town. This ridge, three miles in length, is in the shape of a fishhook, with Culp's Hill for the barb and Round Top at the extreme southern end. Just north of Round Top was Little Round Top. Lee's army took position on Seminary Ridge, lying about a mile west of Cemetery Ridge and nearly parallel with it.

The second day.

On the second day of the battle the Confederates made two vigorous assaults, one at Culp's Hill on the right wing of the Union army and the other in front of Little Round Top on the left wing. Although the Confederates gained some slight advantage, there was no definite result on either side.

Having failed to break the Union flanks and having received Pickett's fresh division, Lee spent the next morning in preparation for a grand assault on the Union centre, where he hoped to be more successful. By one o'clock in the afternoon he had placed in position on Seminary Ridge more than a hundred guns. The Federals could find room for only eighty on Cemetery Ridge. At one o'clock the Confederate guns opened fire, and until three the furious cannonade continued. At that time the fire slackened on Cemetery Ridge in order to let the guns cool in time for the expected attack. The Confederates thought they had silenced the Union batteries, and that the moment for the South to make one mighty effort had come.

The furious cannonade.



Pickett's charge.

General Pickett, who was to lead this assault at the head of some of the best Virginia troops, was ordered to advance. In three magnificent lines, with a front a mile long, 15,000 Confederates charged across the field. The sight was thrilling, but soon the murderous fire from the Northern guns began to cut them down by hundreds. The fearful slaughter thinned the advancing lines. Still they pressed on. As they neared the first line of Northern troops, Lieutenant Cushing, a Union officer, although mortally wounded, pushed the only remaining gun of his battery to the fence and shouted to his commander, "Webb, I will give them one more shot." As he fired he fell, saying "Good-by." Pickett's men broke through the first line. Armistead, one of Pickett's generals, leaped over the fence, raised aloft his sword, upon the point of which he swung his hat, and shouted, "Give them the cold steel, boys!" Just as he laid his hand upon a Union gun to capture it, he was shot down. From every side the Union men came rushing headlong upon the enemy. The struggle that followed was terrific. Men and officers were mingled together in one seething mass, each man fighting for himself.

Defeat of Pickett's men.

Pickett's men were soon repulsed, and with their lines broken into fragments they were driven back with disastrous loss. The failure of Pickett's charge insured Lee's defeat at Gettysburg, and with that defeat the tide turned. Next day, while Grant was receiving the surrender of Vicksburg, Lee began his retreat toward the Potomac. After this failure the South was unable to secure a foothold in the North.[1]

GEORGE G. MEADE.

337. Capture of Vicksburg; Opening of the Mississippi River.—At the close of 1862 Vicksburg and Port Hudson were the only Confederate strongholds left on the Mississippi. After months of unsuccessful effort to take Vicksburg from the north, General Grant moved his army down on the west bank of the river and, crossing over to the east bank, made an attack from the south. Pemberton, who was in command of the Confederates in Vicksburg, marched out to meet Grant, hoping to unite with Johnston, who was hastening to join him. Before the union of the two Confederate armies could be effected, Grant drove Pemberton into Vicksburg and compelled Johnston to retreat. Grant's bold plan was brilliantly executed.

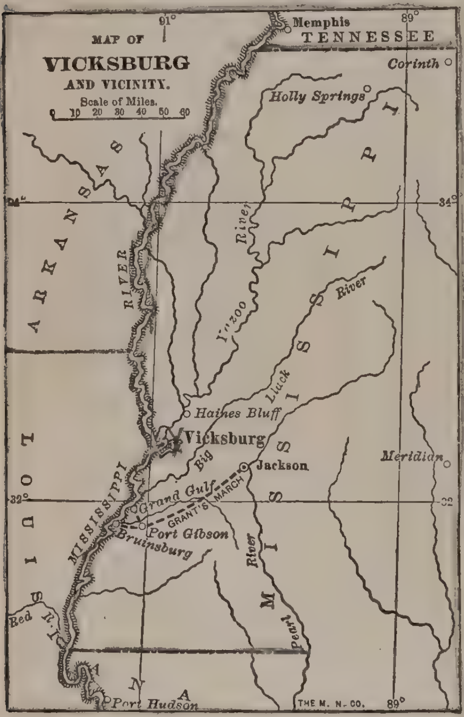
Grant attacks Vicksburg from the south.

---

[1] In this battle Meade's army (infantry and artillery) numbered about 82,000; Lee's about 74,000. Each army had in addition about 11,000 cavalry. Meade lost in all about 23,000; Lee 30,000, or more than one-third of his entire force.

He then laid siege to the city (May 19), cutting it off from supplies of all kinds. Flour sold for $1,000 a barrel (Confederate money). Provisions became so scarce that even rats and mule-flesh were used as food. So many thousand shells were thrown into the city daily that many people abandoned their homes. They lived in caves which they dug in banks where the streets had been cut through the hills. In about seven weeks the Confederates were starved into surrender. On July 4, 1863, the day after Lee's defeat at Gettysburg, Pemberton surrendered Vicksburg with 32,000 men. When, four days later, Port Hudson was captured, the Mississippi River, to its mouth, was under the control of the North.

The Confederates starved into surrender.



338. Slavery and the Emancipation Proclamation (January 1, 1863).—In his inaugural address President Lincoln had declared that he would not interfere with slavery where it already existed because he had no constitutional right to do so. But as the war proceeded it became evident that the blacks in the South were a great source of strength to the Confederate cause; for while masters enlisted in the army, slaves by their labor supplied food not only for Southern families but for the

The slaves aid the cause of the South.

support of the Southern army. In this way they were aiding the cause of the South about as much as if they had been able to bear arms. Moreover, the sentiment in regard to slavery was changing in the North. People had come to look upon it as the cause of the war, and many desired the government to attack it as a war measure.

As commander-in-chief of the armies of the United States, President Lincoln had authority to set free all slaves in territory conquered by the Union armies. Just after the Battle of Antietam, therefore, he warned the seceded States (September 22, 1862) that unless they returned to the Union before January 1, 1863, he would set their slaves free. As none of these States returned, the emancipation proclamation was issued on January 1, 1863. From that time the North fought not only for the Union but for the abolition of slavery.[1]

THE FIRST READING OF THE EMANCIPATION PROCLAMATION.

339. **Employment of Emancipated Blacks in Northern Army Stops Exchange of Prisoners.**—It was but one step further to arm the blacks and make them soldiers. If the

---

[1] General Butler, early in the war, confiscated the negroes whom he found employed in throwing up earthworks for the Confederates near Fortress Monroe. He fed and protected them, regarding them as contraband of war.

Emancipation Proclamation was issued as a military necessity in order to weaken the South and to make the issue of the war perfectly plain to the world, the same military necessity would call for the arming of these emancipated slaves. Before the end of the war there were enlisted in the Union armies 180,000 blacks, who made good soldiers. The Confederates bitterly resented the employment of their former slaves in the Union armies and refused to recognize the negro soldiers or their officers in exchanging prisoners. This led to mutual misunderstanding and ended in stopping all exchange of prisoners. As a result, thousands of soldiers languished in prisons and suffered much from disease and famine.[1]

A FEDERAL CAVALRY CAMP—WINTER QUARTERS.

340. Conscription in the North; Draft Riots.—In 1863 the North found it advisable to resort to a conscription or draft. All able-bodied men between the ages of eighteen and forty-five were enrolled, and from the enrollment a certain proportion was chosen by lot. The draft was very unpopular, and in New York City, on July 13, 1863, a serious riot took place, lasting four days and resulting in the destruction of much property. The mobs showed especial hatred toward colored people, brutally killing many. The riot was finally put down by the aid of troops sent from Gettysburg.

---

[1] Some of the noted Southern pisons were Libby Prison and Belle Isle in Richmond, Virginia, and Andersonville, in Georgia.

341. Conscription in the South.—In April, 1862, by an act of the Confederate Congress, all able-bodied white men between the ages of eighteen and thirty-five were required to enter the Confederate army. In the autumn of the same year all white men between the ages of eighteen and forty-five were included in the conscription law, and before the close of the war even boys of sixteen and seventeen and old men were included. So hard pressed for men were the Confederates that just before the war came to an end their Congress had decided to enlist some of the slaves in the Confederate army. When all exchange of prisoners was stopped, the South, by reason of the scarcity of fighting men, was much more seriously crippled than the North. The whole number of men captured from the armies of the North and the South in the entire war amounted to a half-million.

GEORGE H. THOMAS, "THE ROCK OF CHICKAMAUGA."

342. Battle of Chickamauga (1863).—After the loss of Vicksburg and Port Hudson, the strongest and most important position held by the Confederates in the West was Chattanooga,[1] which was not only a great railroad centre, but the key to eastern Tennessee and the gateway to Georgia. General Rosecrans, in

The importance of Chattanooga.

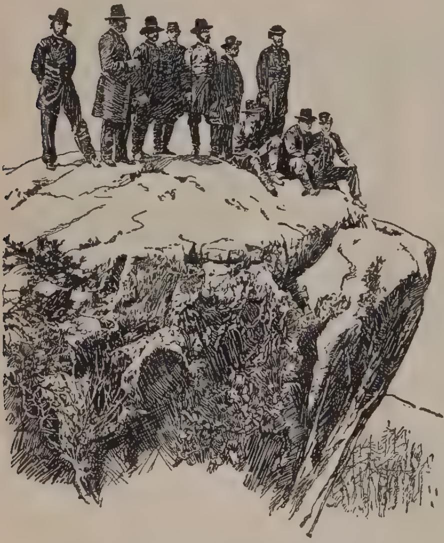
---

[1] From the outbreak of the war the Confederates had made a strenuous effort to get control of Kentucky and Tennessee. The outcome was the remarkable middle Tennessee campaign in 1862. On the last day of the year the battle of Stone's River, or Murfreesboro, was fought, Rosecrans being the commander of the Northern army and Bragg of the Southern. The result was the retreat of Bragg with his army greatly weakened. This battle kept the South from capturing Nashville, and made easier the movement of the Northern army against Chattanooga in 1863.

command of the Union army in Tennessee, advanced with 55,000 troops upon Chattanooga, which was occupied by Bragg. By moving to the south of this place, Rosecrans threatened Bragg's line of supplies and compelled him to withdraw from Chattanooga and take position at Lafayette (September 19–20), twenty-six miles to the south.

Here Bragg received a strong body of reinforcements and vigorously attacked the Union army, now outnumbered. He overwhelmed and routed the right wing, and would have put to rout the entire army but for the unflinching courage of General Thomas, the "Rock of Chickamauga," who coolly held his position on the left until the rest of the army could make a safe retreat to Rossville on Missionary Ridge.

General Thomas saves the Union army from ruinous defeat.



GENERAL GRANT AND STAFF ON POINT LOOKOUT, 1863.

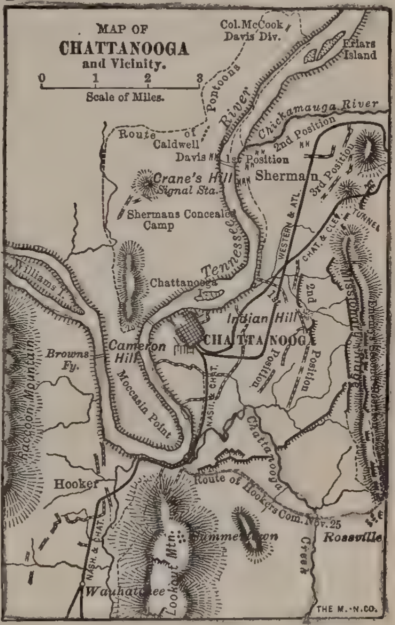
343. **Siege of Chattanooga.** — Although Bragg defeated the Union army in the battle of Chickamauga, he did not secure what he greatly desired—Chattanooga itself. He therefore strongly fortified himself on Missionary Ridge and Lookout Mountain, overlooking Chattanooga, and tried to cut off the Union army from its supplies. The situation became serious. For weeks all the Union supplies had to be brought over a single mountain road for a distance of sixty miles. When Grant, who had superseded Rosecrans, reached Chattanooga about the middle of November, the number of horses and mules had been so reduced by starvation that

Critical situation of the Union army.

the artillery could not be moved.[1] The soldiers were living on half-rations, and had not enough ammunition left for a single day's battle. But in five days after reaching Chattanooga Grant[2] got control of the river line of supplies. From that time the army, which had been cooped up in Chattanooga for months, had an abundance of food.

Bragg's strong position.

344. Battle of Chattanooga. — Having received reinforcements, Grant now decided to attack Bragg, who occupied a very strong position, with his right flank resting on the northern end of Missionary Ridge, his left flank on the northern end of Lookout Mountain, and his centre stretching across Chattanooga Valley. His line was twelve miles long and on the flanks appeared to be almost impregnable. On November 24 Grant sent the gallant Hooker and his men to charge up the rocky heights of Lookout Mountain. This charge resulted in desperate fighting "above the clouds," and in driving Bragg's left flank from its mountain strong-



---

[1] Ten thousand horses and mules had starved to death.

[2] When seventeen years of age (see par. 371) Ulysses S. Grant received an appointment to a cadetship in the Military Academy at West Point. Although he did not take high rank in scholarship, he became the finest horseman in his class, and showed a marked aptitude for mathematical studies. Entering the army after graduation, he distinguished himself for bravery in many important battles of the Mexican War. He remained in the army until 1854, when he resigned his commission, and continued in private life until the beginning of the Civil War. During these years he tried farming, store-keeping, and selling real estate, but did not have much success. In 1861 he received a commission as colonel of an Illinois regiment, and, by his extraordinary military skill and ability, rose to the rank of

Two heroic charges by the Union troops.

hold. Early next morning Sherman vigorously assaulted the north end of Missionary Ridge. Until three o'clock in the afternoon he struggled to drive the enemy from the heights, but in vain. Then Thomas's men were ordered to join the attack. Like a mighty whirlwind they swept away all opposition in their grand charge up the hill. Bragg's army, overwhelmed and defeated, fled from the battle-field in confusion.

TO THE PUPIL

1. Observe that after Lee's retreat from Antietam he defeated the Army of the Potomac in two battles, the first at Fredericksburg (December, 1862), and the second at Chancellorsville (April, 1863). What reasons had Lee for a second invasion of the North in 1863?
2. Trace with care upon your map the location of the two armies on the second day of the battle of Gettysburg. As this is one of the world's great battles you will do well to understand it. Describe Pickett's charge. What were the most striking results of the battle?
3. Before studying the capture of Vicksburg review the following battles fought to open the Mississippi in 1862: Capture of Forts Henry and Donelson, the battle of Shiloh, and the capture of New Orleans. Now you are ready to describe the capture of Vicksburg. Read General Grant's excellent account of it in his "Personal Memoirs."
4. How did the slaves aid the Confederate cause? What was the source of President Lincoln's authority to set free any of the slaves in the South? What was the Emancipation Proclamation? After its issue what was the North fighting for?
5. Why was it natural for the North, after emancipating the blacks, to employ them as soldiers? What effect did such employment have upon the exchange of prisoners?
6. Why was Chattanooga an important military position? What led to the battle of Chickamauga, and how did General Thomas save the Union army from rout? Describe the critical situation of the Union army when Grant reached Chattanooga. What were the results of the battle of Chattanooga?
7. You will find Coffin's books on the Civil War very interesting.

lieutenant-general (1864) in command of the Union armies. His brilliant strategy at Vicksburg and Chattanooga in 1863, and his advance upon Richmond in 1864–65, proved him to be one of the greatest military leaders of all time. His iron will, resolute purpose, cool judgment, and unflinching courage never failed him in the hour of trial and danger. He was also a man of singularly pure and gentle spirit, with a high sense of public duty.

THE HAMMERING CAMPAIGN

General Grant placed in command of all the Union armies.

345. The Union Plan of 1864.—In March, 1864, Grant, who had won the confidence of the people by his campaigns in the West, was raised to a military rank second only to that of the President, with the title of lieutenant-general.[1] In reality he was placed in command of all the Northern armies. By the close of 1863 the Confederacy had been cut down to Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia. The Union armies had now to get control of these four States.

GENERAL U. S. GRANT.

Grant was to attempt the capture of Richmond, which was defended by Lee; Sherman was to get control of Georgia by defeating Johnston, who had command of the Confederates there. The watchword in the East was "On to Richmond;" in the West, "On to Atlanta." These two movements were planned to begin at the same time, early in May, so that, if possible, the Confederate armies might be prevented from aiding each other.

In the Wilderness.

346. "On to Richmond."—Grant's advance upon Richmond began (May 4) by crossing the Rapidan and entering the Wilderness. He had 120,000[2] men against Lee's 62,000. For two days in the thick, gloomy woods, where the enemy could not be seen twenty feet away, a terrible struggle ensued. Grant's loss was severe, but he pressed on, writing to Lincoln, "I propose to fight it out on this line if it takes all summer." As Grant moved forward, terrible battles were fought at Spottsylvania Court House (May 8–18) and at Cold Harbor

---

[1] Before that time only Washington and Scott had been made lieutenant-generals.

[2] Grant's army, arranged in ranks of four, the ranks being five feet apart, would extend a distance of more than twenty-eight miles.

(June 3). Before the close of June he had lost more than 60,000 men, and Lee, 40,000.

Grant transfers his army across the James.

Realizing after this great loss of life that he could not capture Richmond by attacking it from the north, Grant transferred his army across the James in order to attack the city from the south. Here an attempt was made to capture Petersburg (July 30) by exploding a mine under the outer Confederate defences. The explosion was followed by a vigorous assault, but the plan failed.

347. Early's Raid in the Shenandoah.—It will be remembered that in 1862, when McClellan was near Richmond, "Stonewall" Jackson was sent into the Shenandoah to threaten Washington and prevent McDowell from reinforcing McClellan. In 1864 Lee tried in the same way to weaken the attack upon Richmond. Toward the last of June he sent Early with 20,000 men to threaten Washington by way of the Shenandoah. Early swept on until he met General Lew Wallace with a much smaller force on the Monocacy River, not far from Washington. Here Wallace fought a losing battle in order to detain Early long enough for Grant to get a part of his army into Washington. These troops reached the city just in time to prevent its capture. A little later Early again pushed down the Shenandoah across

BUILDING A PONTOON BRIDGE.

Early threatens Washington and burns Chambersburg.

the Potomac into Pennsylvania, where he burned Chambersburg.

348. Sheridan in the Shenandoah.—To put an end to such raids in the North, General Sheridan[1] was sent with 30,000 men to watch General Early and to lay waste the fruitful Shenandoah Valley. After defeating Early and chasing him up the valley, Sheridan destroyed 2,000 barns filled with grain and farming implements and seventy mills filled with flour and wheat, besides driving off thousands of sheep and cattle. A few days later, while Sheridan[2] was away, Early surprised the Union army at Cedar Creek, and drove it back seven miles. This was the occasion of "Sheridan's Ride" from Winchester, about fourteen (not "twenty") miles away. On Sheridan's arrival he found that the Union forces had been formed in battle array. Early's army was totally defeated (October 19) and driven in confusion from the field.

"Sheridan's Ride."

PHILIP H. SHERIDAN.

---

[1] Philip H. Sheridan was born in Ohio in 1831, and died in 1888. He was graduated from West Point in 1853. Upon the outbreak of the Civil War he was made chief quartermaster of the army in the southwestern part of Missouri. He handled his troops so ably at the battle of Murfreesboro that he was promoted to the rank of major-general. He gave further striking evidence of military skill and daring at Chickamauga and Chattanooga. In 1864 Grant had Sheridan put in command of all the cavalry in the Army of the Potomac. His campaign in the Shenandoah was one of the great military achievements of the war. He was so popular that he was called by his men "Little Phil." Some years before his death he became lieutenant-general, and on his death-bed was promoted to the rank of general-in-chief.

[2] In the early morning of the battle, General Sheridan, who was at Winchester on his return from Washington, was informed of the firing in the direction of Cedar Creek. Mounting his handsome coal-black horse, he rode at full speed toward the scene of battle. When he met the retreating soldiers he shouted, "Turn back, men—turn back! Face the other way!" His inspiring presence heartened the soldiers. With waving hats they cried, "Sheridan! Sheridan!" and cheerfully followed their leader as he dashed forward. Sheridan's ride changed defeat into overwhelming victory.

Importance of Atlanta and Georgia.

349. "On to Atlanta."—Early in May, 1864, **Sherman,**[1] with 100,000 men, was at Chattanooga, facing Johnston, with 64,000, at Dalton. It was desirable to get possession of Georgia because it was the workshop, the arsenal, and the storehouse of the Confederacy. Sherman's plan was to capture Atlanta, an important railroad and manufacturing centre, and then to pass on to the sea and destroy the supplies necessary to sustain the Confederate armies.[2]

DESTROYING A RAILROAD AT ATLANTA, GA.

Sherman's difficulties.

Sherman had great difficulties to face. In the first place, an able general, Joseph E. Johnston, opposed him; in the second place, every mile of advance took him farther away from his base of supplies at Nashville. He soon had to protect a long line of communication which the enemy was constantly trying to destroy. Johnston's plan was to draw him as far as possible from Nashville, always avoiding a pitched battle. Sherman's plan was to flank Johnston and threaten his line of communication with Atlanta. By a series of flank movements Sherman compelled Johnston to retreat. Battles were fought at Resaca, New Hope Church, and Kenesaw Mountain.

---

[1] William T. Sherman was born in Lancaster, Ohio, in 1820, and died in 1891. Having graduated from West Point in 1840, he remained in the army until 1853 and then resigned his commission to engage in business. At the outbreak of the Civil War he became a colonel and took part in the battle of Bull Run. Soon after that battle he was raised to the rank of brigadier-general and transferred to Halleck's command in the Department of the West. His great military skill was shown at Shiloh and in the memorable Vicksburg campaign. When, therefore, Grant was placed in command of all the Union armies in 1864, he secured the appointment of Sherman as commander of the armies of the West. The "March to the Sea," one of the notable military achievements of modern history, followed. Sherman was among the ablest generals of the Civil War. When Grant became general-in-chief of the army in 1866, Sherman was made lieutenant-general, and when Grant was elected President, Sherman was promoted to the rank of general-in-chief.

[2] Such a course may seem cruel, but it is just as good generalship to starve an army into submission as to kill with firearms. Its effect is to shorten war and save life.

Capture of Atlanta.

Both generals were skilful, but Johnston, by his cautious movements, failed to satisfy the Confederate authorities. He was superseded by Hood, who was as rash and impetuous as Johnston was careful and cautious. Hood at once made desperate attacks upon Sherman and was soon defeated. By cutting the railroad connections on the south Sherman captured Atlanta (September 2, 1864).

WILLIAM T. SHERMAN.

350. Sherman's "March to the Sea."—A little later Sherman, cutting loose from all communication with the North, started through Georgia on his famous march to the sea, which was some two hundred miles away. Hood, by moving northward, tried to draw Sherman after him, but Sherman sent Thomas to look after Hood, while he himself moved southward from Atlanta. After destroying three hundred miles of railroad and laying waste the country over a belt sixty miles wide, "from Atlanta to the sea," Sherman, with the loss of less than a thousand men, reached Savannah just before Christmas. He presented Savannah as a "Christmas gift" to the government.[1] In the meantime Thomas so thoroughly routed Hood's army at Nashville that it could not be brought together again.

---

[1] The following was Sherman's message to the President:

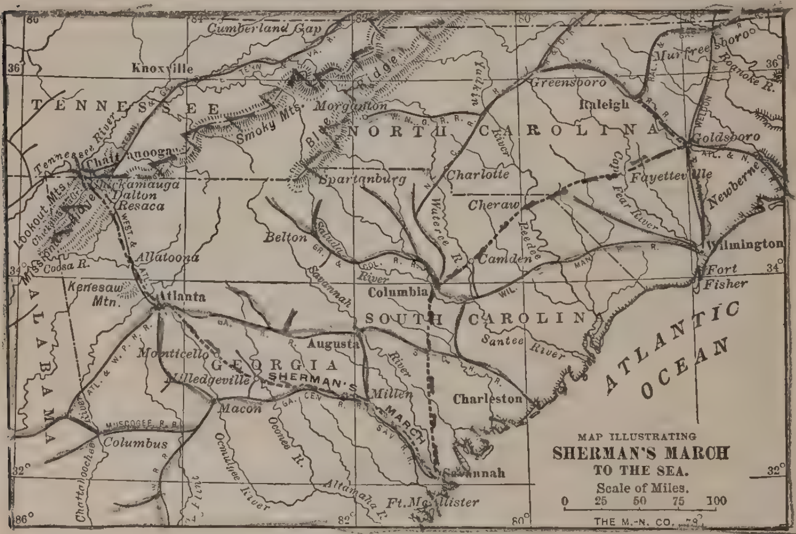
SAVANNAH, GEORGIA, *December 22, 1864.*

To His Excellency, President Lincoln, Washington, D. C.:

I beg to present you, as a Christmas gift, the city of Savannah, with one hundred and fifty heavy guns and plenty of ammunition; also about twenty-five thousand bales of cotton.
W. T. SHERMAN, Major-General.

351. Capture of Mobile.—As we have seen, one of the leading purposes of the North was to prevent, by blockade, the export of Southern cotton. By the middle of 1864 Union war-vessels had closed to foreign trade nearly all the Southern ports. One of the most important of these was Mobile, which Admiral Farragut, in co-operation with a land force of 5,000 men, was sent to capture. Realizing the great value of Mobile, the Confederates had prepared for a vigorous defence. Two strong forts stood on opposite sides of the entrance of the bay, the channel of which was obstructed by torpedoes. Within the bay were three gun-boats and the powerful iron-clad ram, *Tennessee.*

The defences of Mobile.



At six o'clock on the morning of August 5, 1864, the Union fleet, consisting of fourteen wooden vessels and four monitors, was under way. In order that he might see over the smoke, Admiral Farragut,[1] then sixty-three years old, took his position in the rigging of the flagship *Hartford.* One of the monitors was sunk by a torpedo, but the remainder of the fleet passed into the bay and engaged the *Tennessee*, the strongest of the Confederate iron-clads. By ten o'clock the fight was over and the capture of Mobile assured. In a few days the forts surrendered to the land force. This signal victory was due to the unflinching courage of Admiral Farragut.

---

[1] David Glasgow Farragut was born near Knoxville, Tennessee, in 1801, and died in 1870. The night before the terrible struggle in Mobile Bay he wrote to his

352. **Sympathy of English Workingmen with the North.**—We may now leave the armies for a while and consider how England and France were looking upon the war. Jefferson Davis and the South greatly erred when they counted upon the sympathy of the working classes in England, for when English workingmen understood that the war was a struggle between freedom and slavery, their sympathies were with the North. Although the cotton famine in England, produced by the blockade of the South, forced hundreds of thousands out of employment, these starving laborers prayed for the success of the North. On the other hand, the aristocracy, with a few exceptions, and the English Government, being more in sympathy with the aristocratic Southern planter and perhaps jealous of American commerce, favored the South.

DAVID GLASGOW FARRAGUT.

353. **England and the Confederate Navy.**—The South was in great need of a navy, and had no facilities for building one. English shipbuilders, therefore, with the knowledge of the English Government, responded to the need of the South, and built formidable Confederate cruisers in British dock-yards. These cruisers drove our merchant marine from the sea.

---

wife: "I am going into Mobile Bay in the morning, if God is my leader, as I hope He is, and in Him I place my trust. God bless and preserve you, my darling, and my dear boy, if anything should happen to me."

The Alabama.

The most famous cruiser was the *Alabama*,[1] commanded by Captain Semmes. This vessel was built with English money in an English port, was manned by an English crew, carried English gunners, and hoisted an English flag. In a word, with the exception of her officers, she was an English vessel built for the special purpose of destroying Northern commerce. Charles Francis Adams, our able minister to England at that time, protested, but in vain. The United States, in the midst of a civil war, no longer commanded the respect of the English Government. Our country was not in a position to demand justice and satisfaction. But it resented England's attitude none the less keenly, and the time came when England was wise enough to listen.

The Kearsarge sinks the Alabama.

The *Alabama* (1862–64) captured over sixty Northern vessels, amounting in value, with their cargoes, to over $7,000,000. The duel between the *Alabama* and the *Kearsarge*, which had gone out in search of her, was fought off the coast of France (June 19, 1864). The *Alabama*, in about one hour, was shattered and sunk. The sinking of the *Alabama* put an end to the destructive work of Confederate cruisers. After the war England paid more than $15,000,000 for damages done by Confederate cruisers. As the first of these claims made by our government for redress grew out of acts committed by the *Alabama*, all the claims growing out of the acts of all the vessels became known as the "Alabama Claims."

The Alabama Claims.

354. Napoleon III. and the Confederate Navy.—But the English Government did not stand alone in its unfriendly attitude. The French Government was equally

---

[1] "A score of other Confederate cruisers roamed the seas to prey upon United States commerce, but none of them became quite so famous as the *Sumter* and the *Alabama*. They included the *Shenandoah*, which made thirty-eight captures; the *Florida*, which made thirty-six; the *Tallahassee*, which made twenty-seven; the *Tacony*, which made fifteen; and the *Georgia*, which made ten. Most of these cruisers were built in British ship-yards."—R. JOHNSON.

The attitude of the English government toward the Confederate navy was most unfortunate, naturally causing in the North much bitter feeling toward England.

FARRAGUT IN MOBILE BAY.

The deck of the flagship Hartford

hostile to the North. Napoleon III., for personal reasons, was eager for the success of the Confederate cause, and urged England to acknowledge the independence of the South. He wished to see the Union dissolved, because it was his desire to establish an empire upon the ruins of the republic of Mexico, and he knew that so long as the Union remained unbroken he would not be permitted to carry out his plans. He also, during the later years of the war, with contemptible duplicity equal to that of Napoleon I. just before the War of 1812, allowed formidable iron-clads for the Southern navy to be built in France. One of these was finally launched, but the war was at an end before it could reach our coast.

Napoleon's desire to establish an empire in Mexico.

Napoleon sent a French army to invade Mexico in 1861. By 1863 it had established an empire there, and Napoleon offered the throne to Maximilian, Archduke of Austria. The United States protested, but in vain. After the close of the war, however, in response to the threatening attitude of this country, Napoleon withdrew the French troops. Maximilian was then taken prisoner by the Mexican authorities, tried by court-martial, and shot.

Maximilian in Mexico.

TO THE PUPIL

1. What part of the Confederacy remained unconquered at the close of 1863? Describe the Union plan of campaign in 1864. Outline the "On to Richmond" movement.
2. Compare Early's raid in the Shenandoah in 1864 with Jackson's movement in that valley in 1862. What did Jackson accomplish? What did Early accomplish? Why was Sheridan sent into the Shenandoah? What did he accomplish there? Why was the Shenandoah of importance to the Confederates?
3. Why was it desirable for the North to get possession of Atlanta? What difficulties did Sherman meet in his advance upon Atlanta? What was Johnston's plan of defence?
4. Outline Sherman's "March to the Sea." Which do you think was the abler general, Sherman or Johnston? Give reasons for your answer.
5. What did Jefferson Davis mean by speaking of cotton as "king"? At this point review the "Trent Affair," the importance of the blockade, the attempt on the part of the South to break the blockade by

means of the "Merrimac," and the effect the blockade had upon cotton export.

6. Why did English workingmen sympathize with the North? Why did the English aristocracy and the English Government favor the South? In what way did English shipbuilders aid the South?
7. What was the "Alabama," and what was the attitude of the English Government toward Southern cruisers built in English dockyards? What became of the "Alabama"? What were the "Alabama Claims"?
8. How did Napoleon III. show his sympathy with the South? What was his scheme in sending Maximilian to Mexico? In this connection review the Monroe Doctrine, and find out whether or not Napoleon III. violated this doctrine by supporting Maximilian with a French army. Why were the French troops withdrawn from Mexico after the Civil War?
9. Subject for debate: Resolved, that Grant was a better general than Lee.

APPOMATTOX COURT HOUSE

Lee fails to break through Grant's army.

355. **Fall of Richmond.**—By the various disasters which we have recounted the Southern cause was brought into desperate straits. Careful observers could see that the end was near.[1] Sherman, after remaining about a month in Savannah, started through the Carolinas northward (February 1). Lee, with 40,000 men, still held Richmond, which Grant, with 100,000 men, was trying to capture. In order to join Johnston's force in North Carolina, Lee made one last effort to break through the Union army lying south of Petersburg. This plan was defeated by Sheridan in the battle of Five Forks, where 5,000 Confederates were captured.

Lee retreats.

The next day (April 2) Lee evacuated Richmond and started on a retreat westward. The pursuit was hot. Hundreds of the Confederates, having little to eat and believing that their cause was hopeless, deserted, and thousands threw away their arms. Their condition was pitiable. For five or six days they lived on

---

[1] In the spring of this year General Wilson, in a brilliant cavalry movement, captured the five fortified cities of Selma, Montgomery, West Point, Columbus, and Macon. These places had important railroad connections, contained valuable supplies for the Confederate army, and manufactured for it war material.

A COUNCIL OF WAR AT MASSAPONAX CHURCH.

parched corn and the shoots of trees. One week after leaving Richmond (April 9), Lee, finding that every avenue of escape was cut off, agreed to hold a conference with Grant at Appomattox Court House, about seventy-five miles west of Richmond, to consider terms of surrender.

Grant's delicacy of feeling.

356. **Lee's Surrender.**---It was a notable meeting. The result of the interview was the surrender of Lee with 26,000 men, only 8,000 of whom had arms. The terms of surrender were very generous to the Confederates, who were to lay down their arms and were not, unless properly exchanged, to take them up again. With rare delicacy of feeling Grant ordered that all the Confederates owning horses or mules should be allowed to

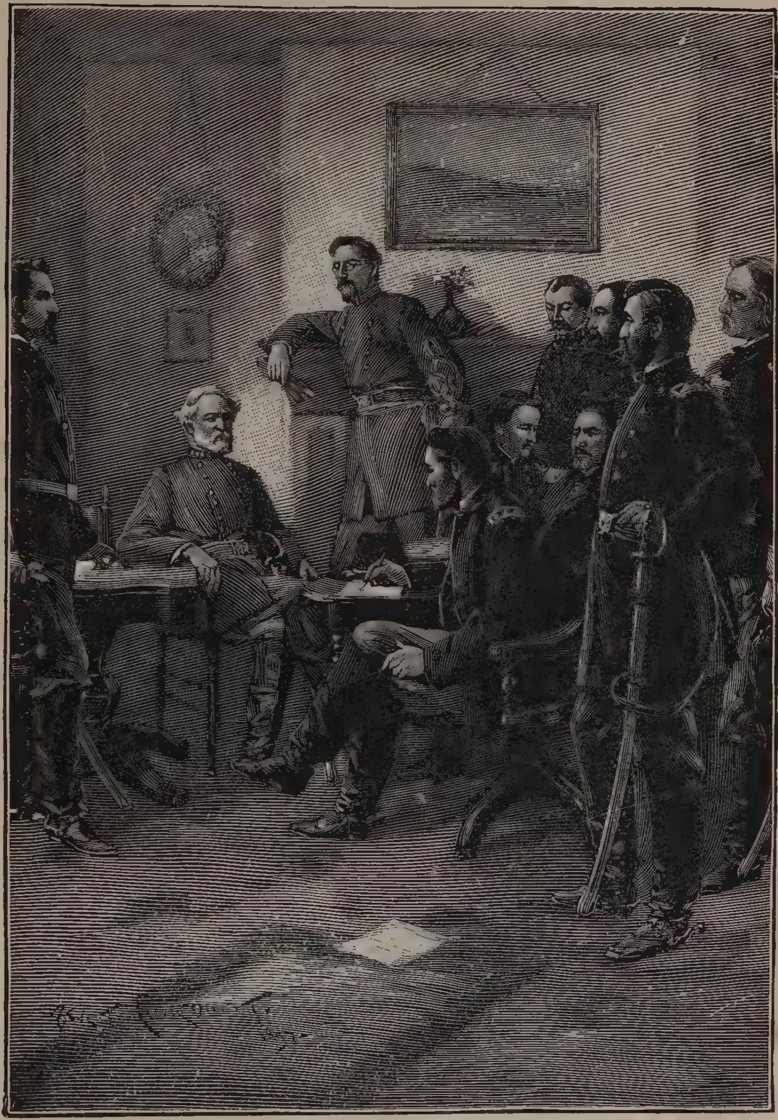
take them home. "They will need them for the spring ploughing," he said. But consideration for the Confederate soldiers did not stop here, for when they marched in front of the Union soldiers to stack arms in token of surrender the Union soldiers saluted them. The Confederates promptly returned the salute.

The generous attitude of the Government.

Grant's attitude toward the Confederates, which won the hearts of the Southern people, was like that of the United States Government as a whole. Only one Confederate—the keeper of Andersonville Prison—was put to death at the close of the war. The death-penalty in this case was inflicted, not at all for connection with the Confederate movement, but because of inhuman cruelty. No government ever showed so great mercy to those who had tried to break it in pieces. The great struggle ended when Johnston surrendered to Sherman near Raleigh, North Carolina (April 26, 1865).

357. **Flight and Capture of Jefferson Davis.**—On Sunday morning, April 2, Jefferson Davis was attending service at St. Paul's Episcopal Church in Richmond when an officer walked quietly up the aisle with a telegram from Lee announcing the retreat of the latter from Petersburg. Davis at once left the church and prepared to leave the city. In a vain endeavor to escape capture he fled through the Carolinas into Georgia. While encamped in the woods near Irwinsville, Georgia, in the early morning he was surprised and captured (May 10). He was taken to Fortress Monroe and confined there for two years. At the end of that time many well-known men—among whom was Horace Greeley, a Republican leader of great prominence—used their influence to secure his release. Davis was never brought to trial. ✓

358. **The Assassination of Lincoln.**—The rejoicing of the people over the return of peace soon gave place to mourning for the loss of the one who had safely piloted the nation through the storm of war. On the evening of April 14, 1865, while President Lincoln was at Ford's Thea-



THE SURRENDER OF LEE TO GRANT AT APPOMATTOX.

tre in Washington, an obscure actor, half-crazed over what he believed to be the wrongs of the South, entered the President's box from the rear and shot him through the head. He then leaped upon the stage, and shouting "*Sic semper tyrannis!*" (So be it always to tyrants), rushed out of the stage-door amid the wildest excitement of the people and escaped. In a few days he was hunted to his hiding-place in Virginia and shot dead while resisting capture.

The aim of the conspirators.

Lincoln's assassin was at the head of a conspiracy whose aim was to bring confusion to the government by killing some of the leading men and thus creating a panic. On the same evening one of these conspirators forced his way to the bedside of Secretary Seward, who was lying ill in his home, and vainly tried to stab him to death. Four of these conspirators were hanged and three imprisoned for life.

The grief of the people.

Lincoln, who was shot a little after ten o'clock in the evening, lingered, unconscious, until early next morning. When Lincoln's spirit passed away, Secretary Stanton was the first to break the silence by saying, "Now he belongs to the ages." The grief of the people for the nation's hero was well-nigh universal. On Friday, April 21, the train that was to take his body to Springfield, Illinois, moved slowly out of Washington on its mournful journey. In order that the people might have opportunity to express their love and grief for the departed leader, it stopped at many large cities along the route. The unbroken silence amid which the vast throngs filed past the open coffin as the body lay in state indicated a feeling too deep for words.

The spirit of his noble service is well illustrated in the closing words of his second inaugural address, March 4, 1865:[1] "With malice toward none, with charity for all, with firmness in the right, as God gives us to see the right, let us strive on to finish the work we are in, to bind up the nation's wounds, to care for him who shall have borne the battle, and for his widow, and his orphan—to do all which may achieve and cherish a just and lasting peace among ourselves and with all nations."

---

[1] It seems fitting to introduce here the memorable Gettysburg speech, made at Gettysburg, November 19, 1863, on the occasion of the dedication of the National

359. The Sanitary and Christian Commissions.—Early in the war the Sanitary Commission was organized by good men and women to supplement the work of the government in aiding needy and distressed soldiers. Recognized by the government and supported by all classes of the people, its career was one of extraordinary usefulness. It had its own physicians, nurses, and attendants, its own transports and methods of work. It ministered to the wounded on the battle-field and carried the wounded soldiers by easy methods of conveyance to the hospital. Furthermore, it gave special relief to men on sick-leave, collected and distributed supplies, and in every possible way cared for the suffering and needy soldiers.

The Christian Commission cared for the souls as well as the bodies of the soldiers. It distributed tracts, held prayer-meetings in improvised chapels, comforted the dying, and, where possible, gave Christian burial. This commission

---

Cemetery there. The speech well exemplifies, in its brevity, simplicity, and tenderness of feeling, the character of President Lincoln:

LINCOLN'S GETTYSBURG SPEECH

Four score and seven years ago our fathers brought forth upon this continent a new nation, conceived in liberty, and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal. Now we are engaged in a great civil war, testing whether that nation, or any nation so conceived and so dedicated, can long endure. We are met on a great battle-field of that war. We are come to dedicate a portion of that field as a final resting-place for those who here gave their lives that that nation might live. It is altogether fitting and proper that we should do this. But in a larger sense we cannot dedicate, we cannot consecrate, we cannot hallow this ground. The brave men, living and dead, who struggled here, have consecrated it far above our power to add or detract. The world will little note, nor long remember, what we say here; but it can never forget what they did here. It is for us, the living, rather to be dedicated here to the unfinished work which they, who fought here, have thus far so nobly advanced. It is rather for us to be here dedicated to the great task remaining before us; that from these honored dead we take increased devotion to that cause for which they gave the last full measure of devotion; that we here highly resolve that these dead shall not have died in vain; that this nation, under God, shall have a new birth of freedom, and that government of the people, by the people, and for the people, shall not perish from the earth.

also received the recognition and support of the government. Thousands of noble women at home, in hospitals, and near the scenes of battles expressed in their service through these commissions not only a tender love and sympathy, but a patriotism as faithful and true as that of the brave soldiers whom they attended.

The work of noble women.

360. **The Results of the War.**—The Civil War was one of gigantic proportions. At its close the South was prostrated, the North was under severe strain. About 600,000 men had been killed, and several hundred thousand more permanently injured. The loss of wealth can never be told, but, including the expenditure of the government and the States, the destruction of property by both armies, and the value of slaves to the South, the war cost not far from eight thousand millions of dollars.

A SANITARY COMMISSION LODGE NEAR ALEXANDRIA, VA.

The most important result of the Civil War was that slavery was forever abolished throughout the Union.[1] The Emancipation Proclamation had set free only the slaves in those States and parts of States conquered by Union armies; but now slavery was entirely swept away, and with it the attendant evils of State rights, nullification, and secession. The supremacy of the Union was established, and the United States, "one nation, indivisible, with liberty and justice for all," turned her energies to the new struggle of building up what had been torn down by four years of frightful havoc —the industries and wealth of her people.

---

[1] See Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution.

TO THE PUPIL

1. Before studying the fall of Richmond review the various attempts made by the Army of the Potomac to capture that city. Your review will include Bull Run, the Peninsular Campaign, and the "On to Richmond" movement in 1864.
2. Describe Lee's retreat and his memorable surrender.
3. Read Lincoln's second inaugural, and memorize his Gettysburg speech.
4. Subject for debate: Resolved, that the army did more effective work than the navy in the Civil War.
5. What were the Sanitary and Christian Commissions? What were the most important results of the war? Are you sure you know its causes?
6. If you will read Alcott's Hospital Sketches you will get a sad picture of suffering in the hospitals during the war.

CHRONOLOGY

1789. *March* 4, FIRST CONGRESS ASSEMBLED IN NEW YORK.
April 30, WASHINGTON INAUGURATED PRESIDENT.
1790. THE FIRST CENSUS, SHOWING A POPULATION OF 3,929,214.
1791. VERMONT ADMITTED TO THE UNION—FIRST NATIONAL BANK ESTABLISHED.
1792. KENTUCKY ADMITTED TO THE UNION.
1793. WAYNE'S CAMPAIGN AGAINST THE INDIANS.
COTTON-GIN INVENTED BY ELI WHITNEY.
1794. THE WHISKEY INSURRECTION.
1795. JAY'S TREATY RATIFIED.
1796. TENNESSEE ADMITTED TO THE UNION.
1797. *March* 4, JOHN ADAMS INAUGURATED PRESIDENT.
1798. DEPARTMENT OF THE NAVY CREATED BY ACT OF CONGRESS.
ALIEN AND SEDITION LAWS ENACTED BY CONGRESS.
1800. THE SECOND CENSUS, SHOWING A POPULATION OF 5,308,483.
1801. JOHN MARSHALL MADE CHIEF JUSTICE OF THE SUPREME COURT.
March 4, JEFFERSON INAUGURATED PRESIDENT.
1802. OHIO ADMITTED TO THE UNION.
1803. LOUISIANA PURCHASED FROM FRANCE.

1804. LEWIS AND CLARK STARTED ON THEIR EXPEDITION
1805. TREATY OF PEACE WITH TRIPOLI.
1806. AARON BURR'S EXPEDITION TO THE SOUTHWEST.
November 20, THE BERLIN DECREE ISSUED.
1807. TRIAL TRIP OF FULTON'S FIRST STEAMBOAT.
November, THE ORDERS IN COUNCIL.
December, THE EMBARGO ACT PASSED BY CONGRESS.
1809. *March* 4, MADISON INAUGURATED PRESIDENT.
1810. THE THIRD CENSUS, SHOWING A POPULATION OF 7,239,881.
1811. THE FIRST STEAMBOAT STARTS DOWN THE OHIO FROM PITTSBURG FOR NEW ORLEANS.
November 7, BATTLE OF TIPPECANOE.
1812. LOUISIANA ADMITTED TO THE UNION.
June 18, WAR DECLARED AGAINST ENGLAND.
August 16, HULL'S SURRENDER OF DETROIT.
August 19, NAVAL FIGHT BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES VESSEL CONSTITUTION AND THE BRITISH FRIGATE GUERRIÈRE.
1813. *March* 4, MADISON'S SECOND INAUGURATION.
September 10, PERRY'S VICTORY ON LAKE ERIE.
October 5, BATTLE OF THE THAMES.
JACKSON'S CAMPAIGN AGAINST THE SOUTHERN INDIANS.
1814. CAMPAIGN ON THE NIAGARA; BATTLES OF CHIPPEWA AND LUNDY'S LANE.
August 25, CAPTURE OF WASHINGTON BY THE BRITISH.
September 11, BATTLE OF PLATTSBURG.
December 15, HARTFORD CONVENTION MET.
December 24, TREATY OF PEACE SIGNED AT GHENT.
1815. *January* 8, BATTLE OF NEW ORLEANS.
1816. THE SECOND UNITED STATES BANK CHARTERED.
INDIANA ADMITTED TO THE UNION.
1817. *March* 4, MONROE INAUGURATED PRESIDENT.
July 4, CONSTRUCTION OF THE ERIE CANAL BEGUN.
MISSISSIPPI ADMITTED TO THE UNION.
1818. STEAM NAVIGATION BEGUN ON THE GREAT LAKES.
ILLINOIS ADMITTED TO THE UNION.
1819. ALABAMA ADMITTED TO THE UNION.
THE STEAMSHIP SAVANNAH MADE THE FIRST TRIP ACROSS THE ATLANTIC, FROM SAVANNAH TO LIVERPOOL.
1820. MAINE ADMITTED TO THE UNION.
THE FOURTH CENSUS, SHOWING A POPULATION OF 9,633,822.
1821. RATIFICATION OF TREATY OF 1819, CEDING FLORIDA TO THE UNITED STATES.
MISSOURI COMPROMISE ADOPTED BY CONGRESS.
MISSOURI ADMITTED TO THE UNION.
1825. *March* 4, JOHN QUINCY ADAMS INAUGURATED PRESIDENT.
CORNER-STONE OF BUNKER HILL MONUMENT LAID IN BOSTON BY LAFAYETTE.
ERIE CANAL OPENED.
1826. FIRST RAILROAD BUILT IN THE UNITED STATES (AT QUINCY, MASS.).
1828. FIRST PASSENGER RAILROAD IN THE UNITED STATES BEGUN (AT BALTIMORE, MD.).
1829. *March* 4, JACKSON INAUGURATED PRESIDENT.
1830. THE FIFTH CENSUS, SHOWING A POPULATION OF 12,866,020.
1831. GARRISON ESTABLISHED "THE LIBERATOR."
1832. NULLIFICATION IN SOUTH CAROLINA.
1833. REMOVAL OF DEPOSITS FROM THE UNITED STATES BANK.
1835. TEXAS DECLARED HER INDEPENDENCE OF MEXICO.

1836. *June* 15, ARKANSAS ADMITTED TO THE UNION.
1837. *January* 26, MICHIGAN ADMITTED TO THE UNION.
March 4, VAN BUREN INAUGURATED PRESIDENT.
1840. THE FIRST CUNARD STEAMER SAILS FROM LIVERPOOL TO NEW YORK.
THE SIXTH CENSUS, SHOWING A POPULATION OF 17,069,453.
1841. *March* 4, HARRISON INAUGURATED PRESIDENT.
1842. THE DORR REBELLION IN RHODE ISLAND.
THE ASHBURTON TREATY CONCLUDED.
1844. ELECTRIC TELEGRAPH LINE ESTABLISHED BETWEEN BALTIMORE AND WASHINGTON.
1845. TEXAS ANNEXED BY JOINT RESOLUTION.
March 3, FLORIDA ADMITTED TO THE UNION.
March 4, POLK INAUGURATED PRESIDENT.
December 29, TEXAS ADMITTED TO THE UNION.
1846. *May* 8, BATTLE OF PALO ALTO, BEGINNING OF THE MEXICAN WAR.
August 8, DAVID WILMOT INTRODUCED HIS PROVISO IN CONGRESS.
December 28, IOWA ADMITTED TO THE UNION.
1847. *February* 22, 23, BATTLE OF BUENA VISTA.
March 27, SURRENDER OF VERA CRUZ.
September 14, CITY OF MEXICO OCCUPIED BY THE AMERICAN FORCES.
1848. *February*, TREATY OF PEACE WITH MEXICO CONCLUDED.
GOLD DISCOVERED IN CALIFORNIA.
May 29, WISCONSIN ADMITTED TO THE UNION.
1849. *March* 4, TAYLOR INAUGURATED PRESIDENT.
1850. THE CLAY COMPROMISE PASSED.
THE SEVENTH CENSUS, SHOWING A POPULATION OF 23,191,876.
September 9, CALIFORNIA ADMITTED TO THE UNION.
1853. *March* 4, PIERCE INAUGURATED PRESIDENT.
1854. *May* 30, THE KANSAS-NEBRASKA BILL PASSED.
1857. *March* 4, BUCHANAN INAUGURATED PRESIDENT.
March 6, THE DRED SCOTT DECISION.
1858. *May* 11, MINNESOTA ADMITTED TO THE UNION.
1859. *February* 14, OREGON ADMITTED TO THE UNION.
October, JOHN BROWN'S RAID ON HARPER'S FERRY.
1860. THE EIGHTH CENSUS, SHOWING A POPULATION OF 31,443,321.
December 20, SOUTH CAROLINA SECEDED.
1861. *January*, MISSISSIPPI, ALABAMA, FLORIDA, GEORGIA, AND LOUISIANA SECEDED.
January 29, KANSAS ADMITTED TO THE UNION.
February, TEXAS SECEDED; PROVISIONAL CONFEDERATE GOVERNMENT ORGANIZED.
March 4, LINCOLN INAUGURATED PRESIDENT.
April 12, 13, BOMBARDMENT OF FORT SUMTER.
April 17, VIRGINIA SECEDED.
April 19, FIRST BLOOD SHED, IN BALTIMORE.
May, ARKANSAS AND NORTH CAROLINA SECEDED.
July 21, FIRST BATTLE OF BULL RUN.
November 8, MASON AND SLIDELL TAKEN FROM THE TRENT.
1862. *February* 16, SURRENDER OF FORT DONELSON.
March 9, FIGHT BETWEEN THE MERRIMAC AND THE MONITOR.
April 6, 7, BATTLE OF PITTSBURG LANDING (SHILOH).
April 25, CAPTURE OF NEW ORLEANS BY FARRAGUT.
June 25, THE SEVEN DAYS' BATTLES BEFORE RICHMOND BEGUN.
August 29, 30, SECOND BATTLES OF BULL RUN.

1862. *September* 17, BATTLE OF ANTIETAM.
December 13, BATTLE OF FREDERICKSBURG.
1863. *January* 1, EMANCIPATION PROCLAMATION ISSUED.
May 2, 3, BATTLE OF CHANCELLORSVILLE.
June 20, WEST VIRGINIA ADMITTED TO THE UNION.
July 1–3, BATTLE OF GETTYSBURG.
July 4, SURRENDER OF VICKSBURG.
July 8, SURRENDER OF PORT HUDSON.
September 19, 20, BATTLE OF CHICKAMAUGA.
November 24, 25, BATTLE OF CHATTANOOGA.
May 4, SHERMAN'S ATLANTA CAMPAIGN BEGUN.
1864. *May* 5, 6, GRANT'S ADVANCE ON LEE, BATTLE OF THE WILDERNESS.
June 14, GRANT CROSSES THE JAMES; SIEGE OF PETERSBURG BEGUN.
June 19, THE ALABAMA SUNK BY THE KEARSARGE.
August 5, BATTLE OF MOBILE BAY.
September 2, FALL OF ATLANTA.
September and *October*, SHERIDAN'S CAMPAIGN IN THE SHENANDOAH VALLEY
October 19, BATTLE OF CEDAR CREEK.
October 31, NEVADA ADMITTED TO THE UNION.
November 15, SHERMAN'S MARCH TO THE SEA BEGUN.
December 15, 16, BATTLE OF NASHVILLE.
December 21, SHERMAN ENTERS SAVANNAH.
1865. *January* 15, FORT FISHER CAPTURED BY GENERAL TERRY.
March 4, ABRAHAM LINCOLN'S SECOND INAUGURATION.
April 1, BATTLE OF FIVE FORKS.
April 2, RICHMOND EVACUATED.
April 9, SURRENDER OF LEE'S ARMY.
April 14, PRESIDENT LINCOLN ASSASSINATED.
April 26, SURRENDER OF JOHNSTON'S ARMY.
May 10, CAPTURE OF JEFFERSON DAVIS.
May 23, 24, REVIEW OF THE ARMY AT WASHINGTON.

Reconstruction and the New Union

CHAPTER XIX

RECONSTRUCTION DAYS (1865–1871)

REFERENCES: **Scribner's** Popular History of the United States, V.; **Andrews's** United States, II.; **Andrews's** Last Quarter Century, I.; **Burgess's** Civil War and Reconstruction; **Wilson's** Division and Reunion; **Richardson's** History of Our Country.

OUTSIDE READINGS: **Wilson's** A History of the American People; **Goldwin Smith's** United States; **Alexander H. Stephens's** War between the States; **Jefferson Davis's** Rise and Fall of the Confederate Government; **Blaine's** Twenty Years in Congress; **McPherson's** Political History of Reconstruction; **McCulloch's** Men and Measures of Half a Century.

361. Condition of the South when Johnson became President.—If all the wisdom and tact of Lincoln had been required during the war, much more were they needed in the trying days of reconstruction. The public debt was enormous, and the whole country was suffering from the strain of war. Fortunes had been lost, family circles broken, and thousands of brave fathers, husbands, and brothers slain in battle. Conditions were hardest in the South, where wasted plantations and ruined homes bore evidence of the terrible havoc of war. Bodies of Union cavalry were scouring the country in search of Confederate leaders who, when captured, were sent to forts and imprisoned until the nation should decide their fate.

Perplexing questions.

"What shall be done with the leading Confederates?" "How shall the millions of Southern negroes be cared for?" "In what way shall the seceded States be treated?" These were a few of the perplexing questions of those trying times. It was hard to know what was best to do—so hard that men soon realized that Lee's surrender presented new troubles as difficult to settle as the problems that brought on the war itself.

362. Andrew Johnson.[1]—Andrew Johnson, who succeeded Lincoln, was rash, hot-tempered, and self-willed, utterly without the delicate tact and persuasive power that gave Lincoln such a remarkable influence over men. In politics he was a strict constructionist, but was devoted to the Union. At the beginning of the war he was the only senator from the secession States who refused to resign his office. At this time he was an ardent believer in the doctrine of State rights, but he had no sympathy with the secession movement. This was accounted for by the fact that he was brought up among the "poor whites" and was therefore prejudiced alike against the rich men of the South and the negroes. We need not be surprised, then, to find him ready to put to death Jefferson Davis and other distinguished Confederates, and to show no special concern about the protection of the freedmen.

ANDREW JOHNSON.

363. President Johnson's Plan of Restoring the Seceded States.—By the middle of July, 1865, President Johnson took steps to restore the eleven Confederate States to their places in the Union. Congress would not meet until

---

[1] Andrew Johnson, the seventeenth President of the United States (1865–1869) was born in Raleigh, North Carolina, in 1808, and died in 1875. His parents belonged to the class of people known as the "poor whites," and therefore his early advantages were extremely limited; but he was fearless, honest, energetic, and ambitious. He taught himself to read while apprenticed to a tailor, and after his marriage his wife taught him to write and cipher. While a young man he removed to Tennessee with his mother and sister, who were dependent upon him. There he gained the confidence of the people, and occupied one public office after another until his election to the Senate of the United States. He was governor of Tennessee when he was elected Vice-President, and after Lincoln's assassination he became President.

December, and up to that time he could carry out his own ideas in regard to the South. He appointed provisional governors, who were to call upon the white voters in their respective States to elect delegates to State conventions. These conventions were to pass three votes: (1) To declare the Ordinances of Secession to be null and void; (2) to repudiate the Confederate war-debt; (3) and to ratify the Thirteenth Amendment, which forever abolished slavery in the United States.[1] The votes having been passed by all the seceded States, the President recognized the State governments[2] and declared them ready to be represented in Congress (December, 1865).

364. The Freedmen and Southern Legislation.—It was believed in the South that the freedmen, having so long been accustomed as slaves to the direction of masters and overseers, would not work unless compelled by law, and that the safety of the South was threatened by the presence of several million ignorant and shiftless beings. Southern Legislatures, therefore, began to enact laws whose results would have been to reduce the negroes to a condition little short of actual slavery. These laws aroused indignation in the North and had great influence in shaping the work of reconstruction.

365. The Congressional Plan of Reconstruction in the Seceded States (1867).—When Congress met in December, 1865, the Republicans refused to admit the representatives and senators from the seceded States until something should be done to protect the freedmen in their civil rights. This action made President Johnson furious against Congress. He declared that it had no more right to keep a State out of the Union than the States had to secede from the Union. His bitterness increased until it led him to lose all sense of dignity and propriety as he gave expression to his violent

President Johnson's bitter feeling toward Congress.

---

[1] This amendment did for the whole United States what the Emancipation Proclamation did for the seceded States.

[2] Johnson's plan of restoring the seceded States was similar to that outlined by Lincoln in his "Presidential Theory" of reconstruction.

feelings. In a short time he turned his party in Congress against him. As they numbered two-thirds of both the Senate and the House they could enact any laws they pleased, in spite of the President's veto. Johnson soon accused them of keeping out the Southern representation for this specific purpose. But the more he accused, the more solid became the ranks of the Republicans opposed to him.

Two essential features of the Congressional plan.

By 1867 Congress had worked out a simple and thorough plan of reconstruction which it boldly proceeded to execute. By this plan, (1) the Confederate leaders were excluded from voting or holding office until pardoned by Congress, and (2) the freedmen were given the ballot. In other words, those who a few years before had been slaves were given large influence in public affairs, while many of their former masters were left without any political power whatever. No seceded State could be represented in Congress until it should submit to these two conditions. To indicate its submission each State was to ratify the Fourteenth Amendment.[1]

366. The Work of Reconstruction Complete.—It is needless to say that the Southern people indignantly opposed these laws. They thought Congress unjust to deny the right of suffrage to the most intelligent and influential whites, and at the same time to give it to the ignorant blacks. But in June, 1868, seven[2] of the States had submitted, and their representatives were admitted again to Congress. By January 30, 1871, the work of reconstruction had been completed, and all the States were again represented in Congress.

367. Bitter Struggle Between President Johnson and Congress (1867–1868).—The President, as we have seen, had

[1] This made the freedman a citizen, declared that the Confederate leaders should not fill any public office until pardoned by Congress, and that while the debt of the Union should be paid, the debt of the Confederacy should not be paid. Tennessee was the first of the Confederate States to accept the Thirteenth and Fourteenth Amendments, and Congress voted, July 24, 1866, that she was entitled to representation.

[2] These States were Tennessee, North Carolina, South Carolina, Florida, Alabama, Louisiana, and Arkansas.

The Tenure of Office Act.

not agreed with Congress about the plan of reconstruction. The quarrel between them grew more bitter. Congress continued to pass measures over his veto, and he continued fiercely to attack that body in his speeches. This most unfortunate and undignified contest was brought to a climax by the Tenure of Office Act. Up to that time it had been held that, while the President could appoint no high officials without the Senate's approval, he could remove them at his pleasure. But in March, 1867, Congress passed the Tenure of Office Act, providing that the President should not, without the consent of the Senate, remove any office-holder whose appointment required the consent of the Senate. In August, during the Congressional recess, Johnson removed from his Cabinet Mr. Stanton, Secretary of War, and appointed General Grant to fill the position. When the Senate again met, it refused to sanction Stanton's removal, and General Grant withdrew.

368. The Impeachment of President Johnson.—The President, believing that the Tenure of Office Act was unconstitutional, refused to obey it, and again removed Secretary Stanton, putting General Thomas in his place. The House then impeached the President; that is, it accused him of failing to do his duty as the executive head of the nation. He was tried before the Senate, Chief-Justice Chase presiding. As in all cases of impeachment, the Senate acted as a high court, a two-thirds vote being necessary to secure conviction. More than two-thirds of the Senators were Republicans, but seven of them voted for acquittal, making the vote stand thirty-five for conviction and nineteen for acquittal. The President had won by a single vote.

369. Negro Suffrage and Carpet-bag Rule (1868–1871).—Before the work of reconstruction was completed, the Fifteenth Amendment had become a part of the Constitution. The Thirteenth Amendment (1865) made the negro a freedman, the Fourteenth Amendment (1868) made him a citizen, and the Fifteenth Amendment (1870) made him a voter. With the

The negro a freedman, a citizen, and a voter.

right of suffrage in his grasp, his friends hoped that he might protect himself against oppression. But he was too ignorant to become a voter or lawmaker. As a slave he had not only been kept in ignorance, but, by his master's care for his wants, had been deprived of all sense of responsibility. One could hardly expect that all at once he would become an intelligent voter.

Great disorder, heavy taxes, and bad laws.

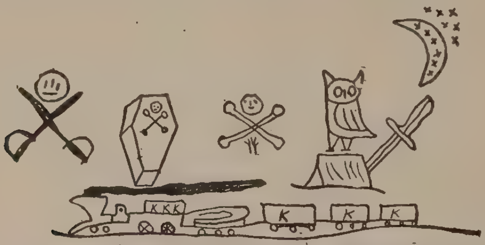
The whites tried by bribes and other means to keep the negroes away from the polls. When mild means failed, violence was used. As a natural result there was great disorder. The negroes were joined by a small number of white men, some of whom were adventurers from the North, called "carpet-baggers" because they were said to have brought all their possessions in their carpet-bags, and others were Southern men, called "scalawags" and despised as traitors by the South. Doubtless many of these white men were honest in their convictions, but some of them used the blacks as tools for their own political advancement. The Legislatures made bad laws and levied heavy taxes upon property owned mostly by the whites, who could not vote. Vast sums of money were wasted or stolen, and State debts were enormously increased.

370. The Ku-Klux Klan (1868–1871).—Naturally, men of property and intelligence resented these unjust practices and determined to put a stop to them. At first the whites used peaceable means, and soon got control in some of the States. But in others, especially where the blacks were in a majority, the whites were not so successful. In those States attempts were made to terrify the freedmen. Much of this terrorizing was done under the name of a secret society called the Ku-Klux Klan, which existed throughout the South.

It was at first a sort of police organized by the young men of Tennessee as a pleasurable means of keeping the negroes under control by working upon their superstitions. Its members wore hideous masks and disguises, and did much of their work at night. As disorder increased,

Brutal methods of the Ku-Klux Klan.

"dens," or Ku-Klux societies, multiplied, especially in those States where the blacks were in a majority. Usually the knowledge that a "den" was organized in the vicinity was enough to terrify the negroes into submission. When that was not sufficient the Ku-Klux Klan, or men who pretended to belong to the society, began to whip, maim, and even murder the freedmen and their white Republican friends. Finally, law-abiding citizens of both parties, aided by the National Government, united to put down the disorder, and by the close of 1871 had succeeded.



The Horrible *Sepulchre* and Bloody Moon has at last arrived. Some live to-day to-morrow "*Die.*" We the undersigned understand through our Grand "*Cyclops*" that you have recommended a big Black Nigger for Male agent on our nu rode; wel, sir, Jest you understand in time if he gets on the rode you can make up your mind to pull roape. If you have any thing to say in regard to the Matter, meet the Grand Cyclops and Conclave at Den No. 4 at 12 o'clock midnight, Oct. 1st, 1871.

"When you are in Calera we warn you to hold your tounge and not speak so much with your mouth or otherwise you will be taken on supprise and led out by the Klan and learnt to stretch hemp. Beware. Beware. Beware. Beware.

(Signed)

"PHILLIP ISENBAUM,
"*Grand Cyclops*
"JOHN BANKSTOWN
"ESAU DAVES.
"MARCUS THOMAS.
"BLOODY BONES.

"You know who. And all others of the Klan."

A KU-KLUX "WARNING" IN MISSISSIPPI.

371. President Grant Sends Troops to the South.—The reconstructed governments, which were in the hands of the negroes, assisted by their white friends, appealed to President Grant[1] for national troops to help them secure order. These were sent, but before 1877 the whites had gained control in all but three States, South Carolina, Florida, and Louisiana. The presence of bayonets in aid of the reconstructed governments had greatly irritated the Southern whites, who had thus been prevented from getting complete political control. The North did not clearly understand the situation, and the South found it hard to yield to the changed conditions. There was a great effort made on each side to do the best thing under the circumstances, but the obstacles were unusually great.

---

[1] Ulysses S. Grant, eighteenth President of the United States (1869–1877), was born at Point Pleasant, Ohio, in 1822, and died at Mount McGregor, near Saratoga, New York, in 1885. He was the oldest of six children, and in his boyhood helped his father in the work of the farm. The name given him by his parents was Hiram Ulysses. On receiving his cadetship at West Point, however, he found that his name had been inserted in the official appointment as Ulysses S. Although Cadet Grant informed the authorities at West Point of the mistake, they did not rectify it.

Unsatisfactory Results of Reconstruction.

TO THE PUPIL

1. What perplexing questions called for answers at the close of the war? It was a trying time for the new President. Can you tell what his peculiar political views were?
2. What steps did he take to restore the seceded States? What three votes were the State conventions required to pass before the seceded States could be restored to their places in the Union? Remember that these things were done between the time when Johnson became President (April 15, 1865) and the meeting of Congress in December of the same year.
3. Before the meeting, however, what laws were passed by Southern Legislatures, and with what effect? Why, then, did Congress refuse to admit representatives and senators from the seceded States?
4. What were the two essential features of the Congressional plan of reconstruction?
5. You will observe the increasing bitterness of the disagreement between Johnson and Congress. What was the Tenure of Office Act? Why did Congress impeach the President? Which do you think had the right attitude toward the Tenure of Office Act, the President or Congress? Give reasons for your answer.
6. What effect did the Thirteenth, Fourteenth, and Fifteenth Amendments have upon the political condition of the negro? What kind of voter and law-maker did he make? What was the Ku-Klux Klan?
7. Note the dates, 1865–1871, of this reconstruction period and bear in mind the fact that Andrew Johnson was President nearly four of

---

His name ever after remained Ulysses S. He was inaugurated as President March 4, 1869. At the close of his first term he was re-elected. After retiring from public life he made a tour of the globe, and received distinguished attention wherever he went.

these years. His administration was, in some ways, as critical as that of President Lincoln during the Civil War, 1861–1865. These two groups of dates are important enough for you to know them accurately.

8. Read the pages of McCulloch's Men and Measures of Half a Century that refer to the difficult problem of reconstruction.

CHAPTER XX

THE NEW SOUTH (1877-)

REFERENCES: **Scribner's** Popular History of the United States, V.; **Andrews's** United States, II.; **Andrews'** Last Quarter Century, I.; **Wilson's** Division and Reunion; **Richardson's** History of Our Country.

OUTSIDE READINGS: **Wilson's** A History of the American People, V.; **Grady's** New South; **Appleton's** Annual Cyclopædia; Cyclopædic Review of Current History; various magazine articles; the *World* and the *Tribune* almanacs, each issued annually.

372. President Hayes Withdraws the Troops from the South (1877).—When Hayes[1] became President many of the problems of reconstruction remained still unsolved. He nevertheless withdrew the Federal troops from the South, leaving the Southern people to settle their difficulties alone. This was a wise measure, for, as long as Federal bayonets were employed in the South, Southern men were kept in a state of irritation against the Federal government. The Republican governments in the South had been supported by Federal troops, but as soon as they were withdrawn the Democrats got control. The South was now "solid"; that is, the solid white[2] vote was in control and was Democratic.

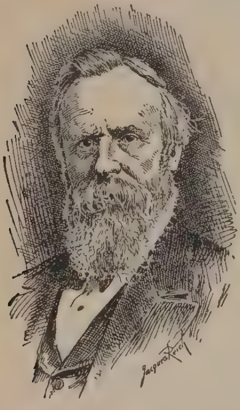
---

[1] Rutherford B. Hayes, nineteenth President of the United States (1877–1881), was born in Delaware, Ohio, in 1822, and died in Fremont, Ohio, 1893. After graduating from Kenyon College he studied law at Harvard University. Entering the Union army during the Civil War, his gallantry and meritorious service led to his promotion to the rank of brigadier-general. In 1865 he resigned his commission because he had been elected to represent his district in Congress. Three times he was elected governor of Ohio. His popularity in that great State had a large influence in securing his nomination by the Republicans for the Presidency.

[2] Only a small fraction of the whites joined the negroes in voting the Republican ticket.

373. Eads and the Mississippi Jetties (1879).—Hayes's administration was fortunate enough to accomplish a great engineering achievement of vast importance to the South. The Mississippi River brings down large quantities of mud which, in its natural course, it deposits when its current becomes slower on reaching the Gulf of Mexico. These deposits fill up the channel at the mouth of the river, thereby preventing the passage of heavy ships. Formerly these mud bars were a great hindrance to the shipping industry of this great seaport of the Southwest, and many millions were expended both by the United States Government and Louisiana for the removal of the bars and the deepening of the channel; but the work was not successful.

The mud bars at the mouth of the Mississippi.



RUTHERFORD B. HAYES.

In 1874 Captain James B. Eads, an engineer who had built the magnificent steel bridge spanning the Mississippi River at St. Louis, proposed a different plan. He had noticed that where the river was narrow and the current swift the channel was also deep. He believed, therefore, that by narrowing the river at the mouth a deeper, swifter current could be secured, which by its natural force would make and keep the channel free from obstructing deposits. Hence he proposed the "jetty system," which had been in use in Europe for more than a century.

Captain Eads proposes the "jetty system."

Captain Eads met with great opposition, but Congress finally allowed him (1875) to make a trial of his plan on one of the smaller mouths. In the contract time, four years, he succeeded in all he had planned to do, and made the channel deep enough to float the heaviest steamships as far up the river as New Orleans. This was a gigantic undertaking, but its success has brought great increase of wealth both to New Orleans and the country at large.

Success of the plan.

Cotton.

374. The New South.—As the South became politically peaceful her industries took a new start. We have already noted that before the war the Southern people believed that slavery was necessary for the cultivation of their staples, especially cotton. Statistics since the war show us how greatly they erred in this belief. The largest cotton crop under slavery was about four and a half million bales (1860); in 1900 it was more than ten million bales. The South furnishes about five-sevenths of the world's supply of cotton. The United States exported during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1903, raw cotton valued at more than $316,000,000, and supplied our own mills with nearly two-sevenths as much. We must remember, too, that this is in spite of the fact that much labor has been turned in other directions.

EADS BRIDGE OVER THE MISSISSIPPI AT ST. LOUIS.
Copyright, 1903, by Underwood & Underwood, New York.

Railroads.

The South is no longer exclusively devoted to agriculture. There is scarcely an industry common to other parts of the country which has not been taken up there. Before the war there were very few railroads, the great network of rivers forming natural highways for trade, except in mountainous regions. But since the war railroads have spread in every direction, and hundreds of mills and factories have sprung up.

It is not too much to say that the South promises to become unsurpassed in the production of manufactured goods. It has been predicted that the mountainous area including

Manufacturing.

southern Tennessee, northern Alabama, and northern Georgia, may in time take the lead of the world in the production of iron and steel. It is of great advantage to the factories in this region that their raw materials, cotton, iron, coal, and lumber, are close to the manufacturing centres.

Natural mineral resources.

The mountains of Tennessee, Alabama, and Georgia furnish rich mineral products, including the finest marble in the country and extensive coal-fields. It is estimated that at the present rate of consumption these coal-fields could supply the world for one hundred and fifty years.

A COTTON PRESS YARD, NEW ORLEANS.

Prosperity in the South.

Since 1880 the development of the new South has been almost as remarkable as that of the West. Northern capital has flowed in; the energies of Southern men, held in check under the system of slavery, have been directed to new industries; and the better class of negroes, forced to depend upon themselves, have worked harder and to better advantage. The South is no longer sectional. Her industries are varied; her interests and feelings are national. Nowhere does loyalty to the Union find more sincere expression than in the South.

375. **The New Orleans Cotton Centennial** (1884).—The improved state of the South, under the new conditions, was

particularly evidenced in 1884 by a great exhibition. In that year a Cotton Centennial was held at New Orleans, to commemorate the first shipment of cotton from the United States. In 1784 eight bags were shipped from Charleston, South Carolina; in 1884 nearly four million bales were exported from our country. Two millions of these were sent from New Orleans, which had become the most important cotton port in the world.

This Centennial Exposition was a striking revelation of the vast changes that had been taking place in New Orleans since the close of the war. In 1860 it was mainly a commercial city. Twenty-four years later it had not only become a great railroad centre, but had an immense capital invested in various kinds of manufacturing and an export trade ranking second only to that of New York city. Its trade with foreign countries has been vastly increased by the construction of the Mississippi jetties.

A SUGAR PLANTATION.

New Orleans in 1884.

376. The Atlanta Exposition (1895).—Another evidence of the changes wrought in the industries of the South was the Cotton States and International Exposition, held at Atlanta, Georgia, in the autumn of 1895. To make a successful exhibit so soon after the World's Columbian Exposition (1893) was a daring enterprise, but in beauty, extent,

STATE BUILDINGS, ATLANTA, GA.

and significance, the result fully justified the attempt. The Exposition at Atlanta was a great object-lesson to the country at large of the wonderful natural resources of the South, the variety of its manufactured products, the skill of its workmanship, and the surprising advance made by the negroes.

377. The Freedmen and Education (1865-).—We hear much said about the race problem in the South, but education is slowly finding a way out of the difficulty. Since the war the South has spent about $125,000,000 upon negro education, the Southern whites having cheerfully taxed themselves to give the blacks a start in life. The North, also, has contributed generously for the same purpose. The fund of $3,500,000 given by George Peabody for education in the South, and $1,000,000 given by John F. Slater for educating the freedmen in the South, aided by the immense work done by various religious denominations of the North, are causing rapid changes in the social and political conditions of that region.

Then, too, such institutions as Hampton School (Hampton, Virginia), Fiske University (Nashville), and Tuskegee

Normal and Industrial Institute (Tuskegee, Alabama) are giving young colored men and women the training best suited to make them leaders among their people in all parts of the South. In 1865 the freedmen had no property; the colored people in the whole country now have over $500,000,000 worth. This fact shows that the former slaves have made marvellous progress industrially. And the industrial training that the normal schools for the colored people are now giving will still better prepare the freedmen to make intelligent use of their opportunities.

Industrial progress of the freedmen.

TO THE PUPIL

1. Note the dates of the period you are now beginning to study, 1877-1913. Grant was President in 1869-1877. Can you give in order the Presidents and the dates of their administrations, up to the time of Hayes's administration? Do not fail to learn them.
2. Why did President Hayes withdraw the Federal troops from the South? Do you think his action was wise? Give reasons for your answer. What is meant by the "solid South"?
3. What changes have been wrought in New Orleans since the war?
4. In studying the important paragraph headed The New South, note the sub-topics—cotton, railroads, manufacturing, natural mineral resources. By a careful study of these sub-topics you will see clearly how different is the New South without slavery from the Old South with slavery. What has been done for the education of the freedmen, and with what results?

CHAPTER XXI

THE NEW WEST (1865–

REFERENCES: **Scribner's** Popular History of the United States, V.; **Andrews's** United States, II.; **Andrews's** Last Quarter Century, I. and II.; **Wilson's** Division and Reunion; **Richardson's** History of our Country.

OUTSIDE READINGS: **Appleton's** Annual Cyclopædia; Cyclopædic Review of Current History; various magazine articles; the *World* and the *Tribune* almanacs, each issued annually.

378. Population and Immigration.—A reference to the table of population for the United States,[1] according to the census taken every ten years, from 1790 to 1910, will show that the increase has been exceedingly rapid. In 1900 the population was 75,568,686. In 1910 it was 91,972,266, making the rate of increase since 1900 more than one and one-half millions a year.

A comparison of the table of population with the table of immigration will show that since 1860 a large part of the increase has been due to immigration. From 1820 to

---

[1] POPULATION, 1790–1910

1790	3,929,214	1860	31,443,321
1800	5,308,483	1870	38,558,371
1810	7,239,881	1880	50,155,783
1820	9,633,822	1890	62,622,250
1830	12,866,020	1900	75,568,686
1840	17,069,453	1910	*91,972,266
1850	23,191,876		

IMMIGRATION, 1820–1910

1820–1840	750,949	1881–1890	5,238,728	
1841–1850	1,713,251	1891–1900	3,687,564	
1851–1860	2,598,214	1901–1910	8,796,308	17,722,600
1861–1870	2,466,752			
1871–1880	2,944,695	Total, 1820–1910		28,196,461
	10,473,861			

*Total population of the U. S. and possessions is estimated to be about 101,100,000

1910 more than 28,000,000 foreign immigrants came to the United States. In the decade preceding the last census (1901–1910) the number reached over eight and a half millions, and during the years 1881–1910 immigrants swarmed into the United States at an average rate of nearly 600,000 a year; that is, nearly two-thirds of all the foreign immigration since 1820 came into this country during the last three census decades.

Immigration since 1880.

It is estimated that the better classes of immigrants brought with them an average of at least $80 apiece, making a very large sum in the aggregate. If we add to this sum their power to produce wealth by their work, their contribution to the nation's wealth will be found to be enormous. Without foreign immigrants, a large part of whom were skilled laborers when they came and have made valuable citizens, it would have been impossible to develop the resources and increase the wealth of the country so rapidly.

Value of immigrants to the United States.

But within the past thirty years the general character of the immigrants has not been so good as formerly, the average of intelligence and morals being much lower than it was before that time. The worst elements among them, including paupers and criminals, become a burden upon society and seriously tax the strength of our republican institutions.

379. Influence of the Public Lands on our National Growth.—The foundation for our extraordinary national growth and increase in population has been the vast area of the public lands. These have been sold for very small sums in order to get them into the hands of the people, who have speedily brought them under cultivation.

At first it was the policy of the government to sell these lands in order to increase the public revenue, but it was afterward thought wiser to use them for the purpose of developing the wealth and increasing the population of the country. In 1841, by what is called the pre-emption[1]

---

[1] Pre-emption gives the settler the first right of purchase as against the investor or speculator.

The pre-emption system.

system, Congress began to sell farms on the public lands at the low price of $1.25 an acre. This was upon condition that the purchaser would occupy and cultivate the land.

The Homestead Bill.

Easy as these terms were, more liberal ones were desired. The growing sentiment in the West was that the land belonged to the people and that the United States should grant free homes on the public domain. Finally, after much debate, Congress passed in 1862 the Homestead Bill, which is still in operation. This enables settlers to secure farms of one hundred and sixty acres free of payment, except a small fee for legal expenses, on condition of settlement. This method has proved very successful in establishing homes and communities, thus increasing the value of the lands and the strength of the nation.

A CRIPPLE CREEK MINE.

380. Westward Expansion.—American history has been largely the history of westward movement from the Atlantic to the Pacific. At the close of the Revolution (1783) the area of settlement was confined, for the most part, between the Alleghanies and the Atlantic. By 1825 it had reached the Mississippi, by 1850 the Missouri,[1] and by 1890 the

---

[1] The gold-mining region of California is not here taken into account.

Pacific coast.[1] We thus see that the westward movement was at first slow. requiring about one hundred and fifty years to reach the Alleghanies.

The opening of the prairies.

But after 1825 it was wonderfully rapid. This marvellous expansion was in a large measure due to the opening of the prairies, which were easily brought under cultivation because they were almost free from trees. In the forest-covered regions farther east, from forty to fifty days' labor was required to clear an acre of land for tillage, but only three or four days per acre were required in the prairie region. Moreover, the soil was rich and fertile and needed little cultivation.

A REAPER.

Reaping and threshing machines.

Another reason why people flocked to the West was because of the great improvement in farm machinery. The McCormick Reaper (p. 264), which came into use about 1860, had a large influence. Drawn by two horses, it could do as much as twenty men using the "cradle." Yet it was but a beginning. The reaper was followed by the self-binder, which not only cut the grain but bound it into sheaves. The self-binder gave place to the steam-driven thresher, and that in turn to the combined reaper and thresher. This complex machine, which is in general use on the vast wheat farms[2] of the Northwest, is either drawn by horses to the number of thirty or more, or propelled by steam. It cuts, threshes, cleans, and measures the grain, and puts it into bags. Tended by four men, it will cut 3,000 bushels in a day.

---

[1] In 1889 North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana, and Washington were admitted to the Union, in 1890 Idaho and Wyoming, in 1896 Utah, and in 1907 Oklahoma, making the number of States in the Union forty-six.

[2] The wheat farms in the Red River Valley vary in size from 4,000 to 12,000 acres, but in recent years the tendency has been to cut up these large farms into smaller ones.

The steam-driven gang-plow.

Almost equally noteworthy was the change of method in breaking up the soil before planting or sowing the grain. The cast-iron plow, which could be drawn by a single horse, was an advance upon the wooden mold-board of colonial days. But the pressing need for something better on the large farms of the West led to the invention of the steam-driven gang-plow. The one commonly used will turn twelve furrows at one time and will plow in a ten-hour day from thirty-five to forty-five acres.

A STEAM-DRIVEN GANG-PLOW.

Results of westward migration.

These various causes explain the great waves of migration westward, which in turn produced two important results: (1) They made labor scarce, and therefore wages high, in the East; (2) they led to an enormous increase in food products, and therefore lowered the cost of food. Both of these conditions were of immense advantage to the workingmen, and they help us to realize how much the general welfare of the people has been increased by the settlement and cultivation of the western part of the country.

381. **The Mormons.**—Among the many settlers of the West was a religious people who wished to enjoy their forms of worship and social customs without hindrance.

In 1839 the main body of these people, under the leadership of Joseph Smith, a native of Vermont, settled at Commerce, Illinois, and built up the city of Nauvoo. Smith claimed to receive revelations from God, and to have discovered the Book of Mormon, which, according to his teaching, is a religious record of prehistoric America, containing the pure Gospel of Christ. He was the founder of the Church of the Latter-day Saints, otherwise known as Mormons. They prospered at Nauvoo, but had trouble with some of the other people of Illinois, and their leader fell a victim to mob violence. Owing to these troubles with their neighbors, the Mormons went into the wilderness to find a place where they could live in peace and safety and in accordance with their own beliefs.

Joseph Smith.

A THRESHER.

Under their new prophet, Brigham Young, they soon after emigrated to the desert region of Salt Lake valley. There the Mormons prospered. With commendable industry and thrift they transformed the desert, by irrigation, into fertile land, and soon built Salt Lake City. Much credit is due to them for the rich cultivation under which they brought the surrounding land.

Thrift of the Mormons in Utah.

382. **The Pacific Coast and Chinese Immigration.**— A less desirable increase of population came from the far East, at first in comparatively small numbers, but at length

Three reasons for opposition to Chinese immigration.

in such large bodies as to cause a general demand for repressive measures. These people were the Chinese. In 1888 the Chinese Exclusion Act was passed to prevent the further immigration into the United States of Chinese laborers. Although at that time not more than 100,000 Chinese were in the United States, 75,000 of whom were in California, the American people, especially those on the Pacific coast, were bitterly opposed to any further Chinese immigration. For this opposition there were several reasons. (1) The Chinese brought no families with them, because they did not intend to remain and become citizens; they showed little interest in American affairs and almost no inclination to adopt our customs. (2) As they lived more meanly than the whites, eating little but rice, they could work for lower wages, and in this way they greatly injured our laboring men. (3) It was feared that in time they might come over in such vast hordes as seriously to endanger our institutions.

383. The Pacific Railroads Furnish the Short Northwest Passage to China, Japan, and the Indies.—It is well to remember that the westward growth of population has depended much on easy, cheap, and rapid transportation, in which the railroad has played a most important part. The first trans-continental railroad, the Union and Central Pacific, was completed in 1869. It extended from Omaha, Nebraska, to San Francisco, California. Work had been progressing upon this road for six years, one party working east from San Francisco, the other west from Omaha. The parties met at Ogden, Utah. Since that time four other Pacific railroads have been built, so that there are now five great trunk lines connecting the Atlantic with the Pacific coast. The value of these Pacific railroads to the United States can hardly be estimated, for they have brought into service immense areas of land otherwise of trifling value. Without these roads and their network of branches running in all directions through the agricultural and mining regions of

The five Pacific railroads and Western settlement.

INDIAN WARFARE IN THE WEST.

Indians surrounding and attacking a detachment of United States troops

the West, the rapid settlements made in the last fifty years would have been impossible.

At the close of the Revolution, Frederick of Prussia declared that no single republic could be held together in a territory so vast as that stretching from Maine to Georgia. He believed it would break into sections or give place to a monarchy. A like argument was made by a United States senator when the Oregon country came under discussion in 1843. This senator urged that such a far-off land could never become an integral part of the United States: that it would require ten months out of every twelve for the representatives in Congress from a State so remote to go to and from Washington. But we can now go from Oregon to Washington in less time than John Adams could go from Boston to Philadelphia in the days of the Continental Congress. Steam and electricity, applied to the transportation of men and goods and the transmission of thought, enable us to maintain a republic over an area of vast extent. It is difficult to see how the North, the South, the East, and the West, with their widely differing interests, could be held together in one great Union without the railroad and the telegraph.

The railroad and the telegraph help to maintain the Union.

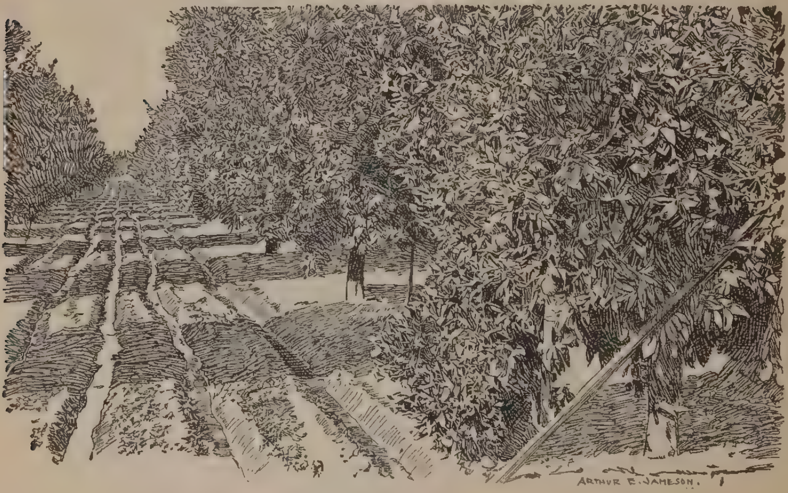
ARTHUR E. JAMESON.

ARTESIAN WELL SYSTEM, RIVERSIDE, CAL. AN ÆRATOR IN THE FOREGROUND.

But the effects of the Pacific railroads on international trade, also, have been striking. Americans in the nineteenth century have found what Europeans so eagerly sought in the fifteenth, sixteenth, and seventeenth centuries—a short northwest passage to China, Japan, and the East Indies. Formerly, vessels with tea from China and spices from the East Indies sailed around Cape Horn and reached our eastern coast after a five or six months' voyage. Now cargoes of these products are brought to San Francisco and reshipped by rail to New York, the whole distance being covered in five or six weeks. The Pacific railroads have thus not only shortened the journey between Asia and the United States, but have reduced the cost of goods by diminishing freight charges.

A short route to China and Japan.

384. **The Arid Region and the Problem of Irrigation.**—With the extension of facilities for transportation the rapidly increasing population of the country began to turn to the districts that yet remained unoccupied. Under the Homestead Law nearly all the fertile land of the West, in regions of sufficient rainfall for agriculture, has been


ARTHUR E. JAMESON.

AN IRRIGATED ORANGE GROVE, RIVERSIDE, CAL.

taken up by settlers.[1] But there is a great district which is barren until it is improved by irrigation. This arid and semi-arid region extends from the 100th meridian westward to a belt of country lying within about two hundred miles from the Pacific coast. It includes the whole of Idaho, Wyoming, Nevada, Utah, Colorado, Arizona, and New Mexico, and parts of Washington, Oregon, California, Montana, North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, Kansas, and Texas. This vast region contains at least 1,000,000 square miles, or an area equal to more than two hundred States like Connecticut. The soil is of great depth, and is exceedingly fertile when watered by irrigating canals and ditches.[2] Professor Shaler estimates that the area of this immense arid region which may be won to tillage by irrigation is probably not more than ten States like Connecticut.

385. **Forest Reservations.**—Under authority from Congress President Harrison withdrew from public sale 18,000,000 acres of forest-covered public lands. The movement in the direction of forest preservation is exceedingly important, because forests hold water in the ground and let it drain off gradually. They thus influence the volume of water in rivers, and therefore greatly aid irrigation.

TO THE PUPIL

1. Why did our government, from the first, sell the public lands at very low prices? What was the Homestead Bill?
2. Trace on your map the advance of Western settlement and note the marvellous expansion due to the opening of the prairies.
3. What objections have been urged against Chinese immigration? What do you think of these objections? What influence has the building of the Pacific railroads had upon trade with China, Japan, and the Indies? Upon Western settlement? In this connection review the pack-horse, the flat-boat, the steamboat, the national road, and the Erie Canal.
4. Trace on your map the arid region and show what connection irrigation has with it. How many States like your own could be included in this region?

---

[1] Areas of fertile land still open to settlement are found in the forest regions of northern Wisconsin and Minnesota, and in those west of the Cascade Mountains in Oregon and Washington.

[2] Irrigation has been successfully introduced into many of the States of this region.

CHAPTER XXII

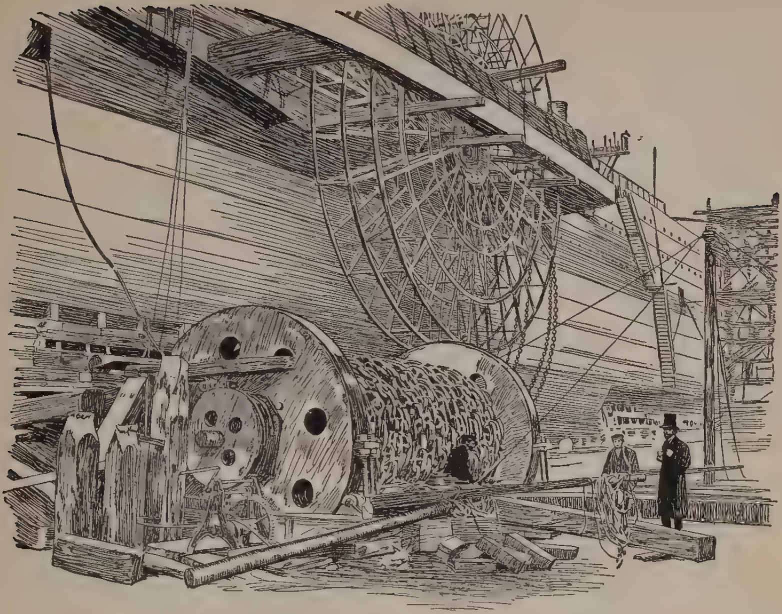
THE NEW UNION (1865)

REFERENCES: **Scribner's** Popular History of the United States, V.; **Andrews's** United States, II.; **Andrews's** Last Quarter Century, I. and II.; **Wilson's** Division and Reunion; **Richardson's** History of Our Country.

OUTSIDE READINGS: **Wilson's** A History of the American People, V.; **Appleton's** Annual Cyclopædia; Cyclopædic Review of Current History; **Field's** Story of the Atlantic Telegraph; **Elliott's** Our Arctic Province; **McCulloch's** Men and Measures of Half a Century; **Bourke's** On the Border with Crook; **Walker's** Indian Question; **Blaine's** Twenty Years in Congress; **Stanwood's** History of Presidential Elections; **Woodburn's** Political Parties and Party Problems in the United States; various magazine articles; the *World* and the *Tribune* almanacs, each issued annually.

386. The Atlantic Cable (1866).—We have considered in some detail the development of the South and of the West. We have now to glance rapidly at some matters that concern the nation as a whole. One of the most important facts in the history of the country since the close of the Civil War is the invention that has made possible the instant transmission of thought to the most distant parts of the world. In 1858, after several unsuccessful efforts, the two continents were connected by a wire cable extending from Newfoundland to Ireland. Two ships, each containing a section of the cable, met in mid-ocean, and, having spliced the sections, returned, the one toward Newfoundland and the other toward Ireland, laying the cable as they went. The two ships reached land on the same day, and very soon afterward (August 16) the Queen of England sent to the President of the United States this message: "Glory to God in the highest, peace on earth and good-will to men." But within

The wire cable of 1858 is not successful.



A MIDSHIP VIEW OF THE *GREAT EASTERN*, SHOWING ONE OF THE PADDLE-WHEELS AND THE LAUNCHING GEAR.

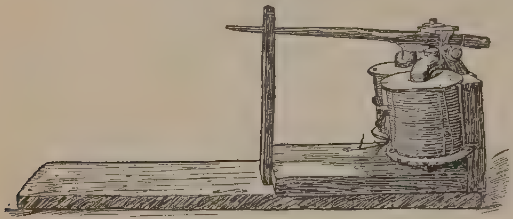
Redrawn by permission from a copyrighted picture in Cassier's Magazine.

a month the cable failed to work, and not until 1866 did ocean cabling become permanently successful.

Results of the Atlantic cable.

Since that time communication between Europe and America has not been interrupted, and now ten lines cross the Northern Atlantic. The cable has largely affected commerce, because the market prices in the great trade centres of America and Europe are reported every day, and large business transactions can easily be made in a few hours between American and European business houses. It has also brought the various parts of the civilized world into closer and more sympathetic relations, because the news of what is going on is so readily sent across the ocean. Our daily papers easily report European events a few hours after they have occurred.

387. The Purchase of Alaska (1867).—In 1867 our government gave to Russia $7,200,000 for Alaska, an immense territory equal in area to about one hundred and twenty States like Connecticut. The purchase was then thought by many to be an extravagant waste of the public money, because Alaska appeared to be almost worthless. But the investment has proved to be a good one, the seal-fur trade alone being worth $2,500,000 a year. Alaska furnishes beautiful white marble, and has mines of coal, iron, and gold of great value. Along many of the streams are found rich forests, consisting mainly of pine and cedar. The fisheries, which include salmon in the rivers and cod and halibut on the coast, are extensive. Besides all these natural resources Alaska has a coast well supplied with good harbors. By consulting the table below it will be seen that the entire area of the United States, exclusive of our island possessions, is now about 3,600,000 square miles, or nearly the size of all Europe.[1]



SAMUEL F. B. MORSE'S ORIGINAL MODEL OF THE TELEGRAPH INSTRUMENT.

From the model in the Patent Office, Washington.

Natural resources of Alaska.

388. Grant's Indian Peace Policy (1869).—The Indians had always been more or less troublesome on the frontier, and during the Civil War the Sioux had committed shock-

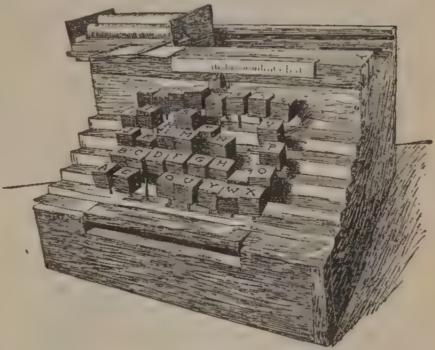
---

[1]

	Square Miles.
United States, in 1783	827,844
Louisiana, 1803	1,171,931
Florida, 1819	59,268
Texas, 1845	376,133
Mexican cession, 1848	545,783
Gadsden purchase, 1853	45,535
Alaska, 1867	577,390
Total	3,603,884

Failure of the war policy.

ing outrages in Minnesota. Half of the expenses of our War Department, exclusive of those incurred by the Civil War, had been occasioned by Indian wars, and yet the Indians were not subdued. The war policy had failed, and therefore President Grant wisely adopted a peace policy. He had observed that the Cherokees[1] had developed by themselves a good degree of civilization, and he believed that by kind treatment and education the more barbarous tribes might be trained into good citizenship. He therefore entrusted the management of a few reservations to the Society of Friends, with whom the Indians had always held peaceful relations. No Indian agent was to be appointed for these reservations without the approval of both the President and the Society. The system gradually extended to other reservations and to other religious denominations, with some success.



R. F. T. ALLEN'S ORIGINAL MODEL OF THE TYPEWRITER.

From a model in the Patent Office, Washington.

Grievances of the Indians.

The Indian could not immediately appreciate this new policy, however, and within a few years the Modocs (1872) and the Sioux (1876) both made outbreaks. There is no doubt that the Indian had grievances. He could not understand why the Great Father in Washington should allow the white man to invade his reservations, as the white man did when he saw in them fertile soil and unworked gold mines. But a more crying evil was the dishonesty of Indian contractors, who were making money by cheating both the government and the

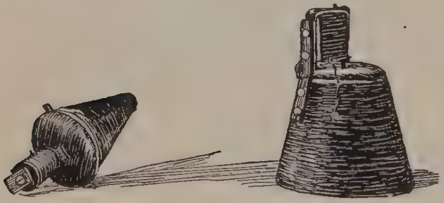
---

[1] The five civilized tribes were the Cherokees, Chickasaws, Choctaws, Creeks, and Seminoles. They all lived on reservations in the Indian Territory.

Indians, and were ready to oppose any plan likely to interfere with their schemes.

The Indian reservation. The government method of reservation was by treaty with the various tribes, the government agreeing to give yearly, for land yielded by the Indians, a quantity of food, ammunition, and other supplies. The food-supplies were to compensate for the loss of hunting-grounds, because hunting was the Indian's only means of support. Ammunition was to help them in securing such game as their reservations supplied. The government made liberal promises for the comfort, education, and civilization of these Indians.

Why the reservation system failed. The reservation system was, however, not successful, because under it the Indians were placed by themselves, out of contact with the civilizing influence of the whites. Moreover, it was impossible for them to develop a spirit of manly independence when so much was done for them. The reservation plan made the Indian a pauper.



ALEXANDER GRAHAM BELL'S ORIGINAL MODEL OF THE TELEPHONE RECEIVER AND TRANSMITTER.

From the model in the Patent Office, Washington.

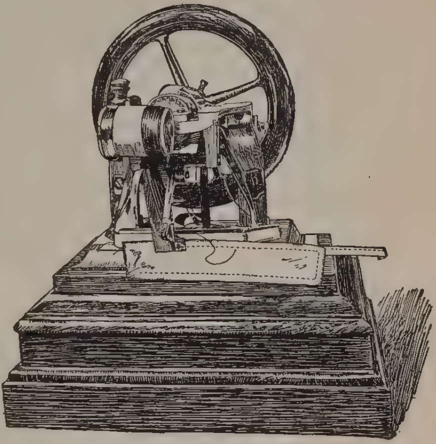
The Dawes Act. The "Dawes Act," passed in 1887, provided for individual ownership of land by the Indians. In the course of time it is hoped that the individual Indian, like the white man, will have his own farm and reap the fruits of his own toil. Individual ownership, along with industrial training and general education, will aid in making him a useful citizen.

389. **The Financial Panic of 1873.**—The Indian problem, serious as it was, affected a comparatively small part of the population. Far different was the trouble that attended the financial crash of the year 1873. This panic was much like the panics of 1837 and 1857. It was preceded by a

Speculation in railroad-building and Western lands.

period of general prosperity, and was brought on by rash speculations in Western railroads. For five years railroad building had been going on to such an extent that the railroad mileage in the United States had increased one-half.[1] This excessive railroad building, which was in the West, increased more rapidly than it could receive support from the population. Fortunes were made by some and lost by others in buying up tracts of lands in unsettled regions and increasing the value of that land by extending railroads through them. The speculative fever became so high that railroads were built much faster than they were needed.

As in 1857, the failure of a single great banking-house suddenly brought this panic upon the country. Financial ruin fell upon business firms and individuals, and want and suffering came into thousands of homes. It was six years before the country fully recovered.



ELIAS HOWE'S ORIGINAL MODEL OF THE SEWING MACHINE.

From the model in the Patent Office, Washington.

390. **Railroad Strikes** (1877).—During the years of financial distress following the panic of 1873, the earnings of the railroads were much reduced. In 1877 some of the railroads in the Middle and Western States lowered the wages of their men. Brakemen and other trainmen on the Baltimore & Ohio Railroad and on the Pennsylvania Railroad refused

---

[1] In 1861 only 651 miles of railroad were built; in 1871 7,779 miles were built. The Northern Pacific, extending from Duluth to Puget Sound, was the most important of these roads. During the five years preceding the panic, about $1,700,000,000 were spent in railroad building.

ARTHUR E. JAMESON.

OPENING DAY AT THE PHILADELPHIA CENTENNIAL, 1876.

to work. Then men on other roads followed their example. Soon there were bloody riots at Baltimore and Pittsburg, and large mobs in Chicago, St. Louis, and other cities. In Pittsburg a mob of 20,000 men had control of the city for two days, one hundred lives being lost. The State militia and the United States troops united to stop violence, but it continued about two weeks. During that time 100,000 men took part in the strike, which resulted in the destruction of ten million dollars' worth of property.

391. The Centennial Exhibition (1876).—But during these years of financial depression and industrial discontent the country gave striking evidence of its vast resources by holding the Centennial Exhibition of 1876 in honor of the hundredth anniversary of the founding of the nation. The place chosen was Philadelphia, the city in which the Declaration of Independence was given to the world. This exhibition taught the people many things. It showed them the wonderful results that had been brought about by machinery and invention in all countries. It quickened their sympathies and turned their attention toward art. But education, especially, received such an impetus that the good results have steadily increased. The Centennial Exhibition also revealed to America, as well as to the rest of the world, the richness and the variety of our natural productions and the superiority of this country over all others in useful inventions. Two of the most wonderful of these were the telephone[1] and the application of electricity to lighting purposes.

What the Centennial taught the people.

SAMUEL J. TILDEN.

392. **The Electoral Commission and the Presidency** (1877).—In the Presidential election of 1876 there were disputes about the election returns made in South Carolina, Florida, and Louisiana.[2] Hayes, the Republican candidate, needed all the electoral votes from these States to secure his election, while Tilden, the Democratic candidate, needed only one. Florida and Louisiana had given Democratic majorities, but the "returning boards," who received the election returns as they came in from various parts of the State, were Republican, and threw out enough votes, on the charge of intimidation, to make a Republican majority. The people were much disturbed, and feared there might be serious results.

A close election.

The excitement increased as the time drew near for the new President to be inaugurated. The Senate being Republican and the House Democratic, they could not unite upon any plan of seating either of the rival candidates. Finally a bill passed both Houses providing that a "Joint High Commission" should be appointed, whose decision should be final. The commission included five senators, five representatives, and five justices of the Supreme Court. The fifth justice was appointed by the other four named in the bill. Before the fifth justice was appointed, seven of the commission were Republicans and seven were Democrats. It was expected that the fifth justice would be an independent, but circumstances caused a Republican to be selected, thus giving the Republicans a majority of one on the commission.

---

[1] The inventor of the telephone, which came at once into practical use, was Alexander Graham Bell, of Massachusetts. The American Bell Telephone Company was soon incorporated, and lines rapidly multiplied.

[2] There was some dispute about the election in Oregon also.

The "Joint High Commission."

JAMES A. GARFIELD.

Decision in favor of Hayes.

On March 2, just two days before the time set by the Constitution for inauguration, the decision in favor of Hayes was published. Opinions were divided as to the correctness of the returns, but whichever candidate was elected, the decision of the uncertain question was final. The people throughout the land, Democrats and Republicans alike, had shown remarkable wisdom and self-control during all the months of the trying situation.[1]

393. **Resumption of Specie Payment (1879).**—The financial disturbance of 1873 and subsequent years was partly caused by the instability of the currency and the undue encouragement thereby given to speculation. Nobody knew exactly how much a dollar was worth or how much it was likely to be worth. This condition was unavoidable during the Civil War, but it was intolerable in a time of peace. During the Civil War so much money was needed to carry on the extensive military operations that the government and the banks could not furnish gold and silver enough for the unusual demands. Congress, therefore, like

---

[1] To provide for possible contested elections in the future the Electoral Count Bill was passed in 1887. This measure threw the responsibility of Presidential elections upon the States, and provided that electoral certificates sent to the national capital by the various States should be opened by the president of the Senate in the presence of both Houses, and that four tellers, two from each House, should read aloud and make record of the votes.

Greenbacks during the Civil War.

the Continental Congress of the Revolution, issued millions of dollars of paper currency, which the people used instead of gold and silver. These paper notes were called greenbacks. As they were "legal tender"—that is, the law declared that they might be used in paying debts—everybody was willing to make free use of them. Gold, however, remained the standard of value, and the value of the greenbacks depended upon the defeats and victories on the battle-field. When the Northern armies won a great victory, the greenbacks rose in value; when they met with a severe defeat, the greenbacks fell in value. While the war was most threatening they were worth, in gold, little more than one-third of their face value, because the prospect of Northern success was very gloomy.

SUPREME COURT ROOM, CAPITOL, WASHINGTON, D. C.

After the war, when the government began to pay the national debt rapidly, people began to have more and more confidence in these paper promises issued by Congress, and the greenbacks steadily rose in value. In 1879 the Secretary of the Treasury announced that he would give gold for paper currency if it were presented at the Treasury. This action of the Secretary of the Treasury meant the resumption of specie payment by the government, and from that time on a paper dollar was worth as much as a gold dollar.

Greenbacks become as good as gold.

394. Assassination of President Garfield[1] (1881); Civil Service Reform (1883–1886).—When this important question of the currency was settled, the new administration of Garfield, who was elected in 1880, seemed to be opening a new era of prosperity. But only a few months after his inauguration the country was shocked by the announcement of his assassination (July 2, 1881). The assassin being a disappointed office-seeker, the tragedy brought forcibly to the minds of the people the great need of civil service reform. President Jackson had introduced the spoils system into the civil service in order to reward his political friends. Appointments were not made

CHESTER A. ARTHUR.[2]

---

[1] James A. Garfield, twentieth President of the United States, was born at Orange, Ohio in 1831, and died September 19, 1881, from a wound inflicted by a disappointed office-seeker. In early childhood Garfield's path was beset with difficulties. He was but two years of age when his father died, and his home, in a lonely log-cabin of the backwoods, was one of poverty and hardship. But the boy cheerfully helped his mother in supporting the family. After being graduated from Williams College he was for a time a college professor, and afterward studied law. Owing to his gallantry and daring on the battle-field in the Civil War he was promoted to the rank of major-general. His term of service in Congress (1863–1880) was so successful that he was elected to the Senate of the United States in 1880. Before taking his seat, however, he was nominated by the Republicans for the Presidency. He was the second President who was assassinated and the fourth who died in office.

[2] Chester A. Arthur, twenty-first President of the United States (1881–1885), was born in Fairfield, Vermont, in 1830, and died in 1886. After being graduated from

by reason of fitness for the work, but were distributed as rewards for political services.

Reform in the civil service.

In 1883 an act was passed by Congress authorizing the President to appoint civil service examiners, who should test by fair examinations, without regard to party, the fitness of applicants for office. From the list of those passing the civil service examinations appointments and promotions were to be made. In accordance with this act, during the next twenty years about 110,000 office-holders were put under civil service rules. As a result all Federal officers are now under civil service reform rules, except two classes: (1) The higher officers, including the heads of departments, and (2) postmasters in fourth-class offices.[1]

Rapid growth of the reform.

GROVER CLEVELAND.[2]

These 110,000 positions are now filled by those who have successfully passed the civil service examinations without any reference to changes in Presidential administrations. The spoils system in the Federal civil service has become largely a thing of the past. Experience, training, ability—in a

---

Union College he studied law and became a successful lawyer. In 1871 President Grant appointed him Collector of the Port of New York. Having been elected Vice-President by the Republicans in 1880, he succeeded to the Presidency on the death of Garfield. He was the fourth Vice-President who thus became the executive head of the nation.

[1] Of those not yet classified, over 72,000 are postmasters of the fourth class. These include postmasters receiving salaries of $1,000 or less a year.

[2] Grover Cleveland, twenty-second and twenty-fourth President of the United States (1885–1889 and 1893–1897), was born in Caldwell, New Jersey, in 1837. In his early childhood the family removed to New York State. Later, he became a lawyer and took high rank in his profession. After filling the offices of assistant district attorney and sheriff of the county he was elected Mayor of Buffalo. In this position he so fearlessly used his veto power that he was called the "veto mayor."

His success as mayor led to his nomination by the Democrats, in 1882, for gov-word, personal fitness to perform the duties of the office—are now demanded in our civil service.

395. **The Brooklyn Bridge (1883).**—In the same year that Congress passed the act for civil service reform, another great work affecting the public good was accomplished. This was the completion of the Suspension Bridge spanning East River and connecting Brooklyn with New York. The bridge was sixteen years in building, and cost $16,000,000. It is 85 feet wide, and is more than a mile long, its centre being supported by four main cables made of steel wire nearly 16 inches in diameter. There are five passageways—two for cable-cars, two for driveways, and a middle one for foot-passengers. In design and construction it is a most stupendous work of engineering.

BROOKLYN BRIDGE. ONE OF THE LARGEST SUSPENSION BRIDGES IN THE WORLD.

Copyright, 1901, by Underwood & Underwood, New York.

396. **Presidential Succession Act (1886).**—A great nation like this should not be left for a single day without a President. Congress had already passed a law that in case of the death or disability of both President and Vice-President, the temporary president of the Senate and, following him, the Speaker of the House, should become President. But in case either of the last named should be of the oppo-

---

ernor of the State of New York, to which office he was elected by an overwhelming majority. Owing to his popularity in New York the Democrats nominated him for the Presidency in 1884. James G. Blaine was nominated by the Republicans. The political campaign was exciting and resulted in Cleveland's election. At the close of his first term he was defeated by Benjamin Harrison, but in 1892 he in turn defeated President Harrison and became President for a second term.

site party, their succession would not represent the choice of the people, and the plan was therefore not considered satisfactory. In 1886 an act was passed providing that in case of the death or disability of both the President and Vice-President, members of the Cabinet should, one after another, be made Acting President as long as the disability existed, or until the next election of a President by the people. The duty would fall first upon the Secretary of State, and then upon the other members of the Cabinet in the order of establishment of the various departments.[1] Such members as might in any way be disqualified would be passed over. There is scarcely an emergency now in which the country could be left without a President.[2]

397. **Knights of Labor.**—We have already noted (see par. 390) the great railroad strike of 1877. Within ten years there were many similar troubles between workingmen and their employers. In order to strengthen themselves for a struggle with employers the workingmen formed large organizations, one of which, the Knights of Labor, contained many thousand members and exerted a large influence all over the country. The members of the organization, calling themselves union men, would suddenly quit work, or strike, when they wished to force their employers to grant them higher wages or shorter hours. The employers, in turn, united against the workingmen by making out "black lists," containing the names of the more influential union men, whom the employers would, from that time forward, refuse to employ. The workingmen sometimes resorted to "boycotting," which was refusing to have any business relations

Black lists and boycotting.

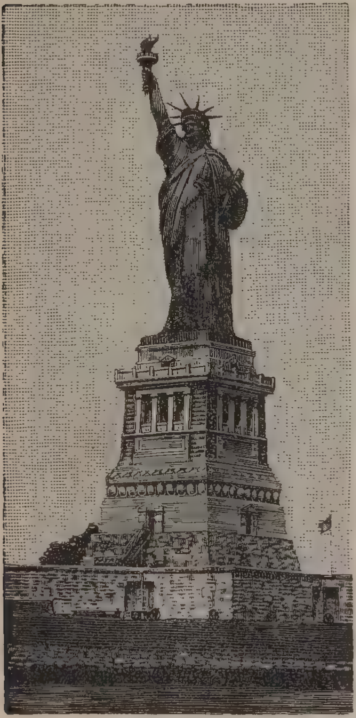
---

[1] The order in which the various Cabinet positions were created was: (1) Secretary of State, 1789; (2) Secretary of the Treasury, 1789; (3) Secretary of War, 1789; (4) Attorney-General, 1789; (5) Postmaster-General, 1789; (6) Secretary of the Navy, 1798; (7) Secretary of the Interior, 1849; (8) Secretary of Agriculture, 1889; (9) Secretary of Commerce and Labor, 1903.

[2] President Garfield died in September, nearly three months before Congress assembled, and during the intervening period President Arthur was critically ill. Had he died at that time there might have been some confusion in the administration of the government.

with the man they wished to injure, either by using any goods he had manufactured or by handling them even for transportation. In most cases both parties gained little by their unfortunate attempts to injure each other.

398. The Statue of Liberty (1886).—In pleasing contrast with these serious labor troubles was an international event that took place in New York City in 1886. This was the unveiling of the enormous statue of "Liberty Enlightening the World," which was given by Frenchmen to the people of the United States as an expression of friendly feeling toward our country. The statue cost more than $200,000 and was paid for by 100,000 Frenchmen. It was placed on Bedloe's Island—now called Liberty Island—in New York Bay. The height of the statue is 151 feet and of the pedestal 155 feet.


THE STATUE OF LIBERTY IN NEW YORK HARBOR.

399. Oklahoma Opened to Settlement (1889).—The rapid growth of population westward began at last to press upon the Indian reservation. That part of Indian Territory called Oklahoma was a large and fertile stretch of country especially coveted by white settlers. The United States therefore finally purchased it from the Indians in 1889, and President Harrison, by proclamation, declared it open to settlement. By nightfall of the day of occupation (April 22, 1889) several thousand persons had staked out their claims in Guthrie and had taken steps to form a city government. Before the year came to a close the territory had nearly or quite 60,000 people, 8,000 of whom were in Guthrie and 5,000 in Oklahoma City. The population of Oklahoma in 1900 was 398,331. In 1907 this territory and Indian Territory were admitted into the Union as one State, Oklahoma.

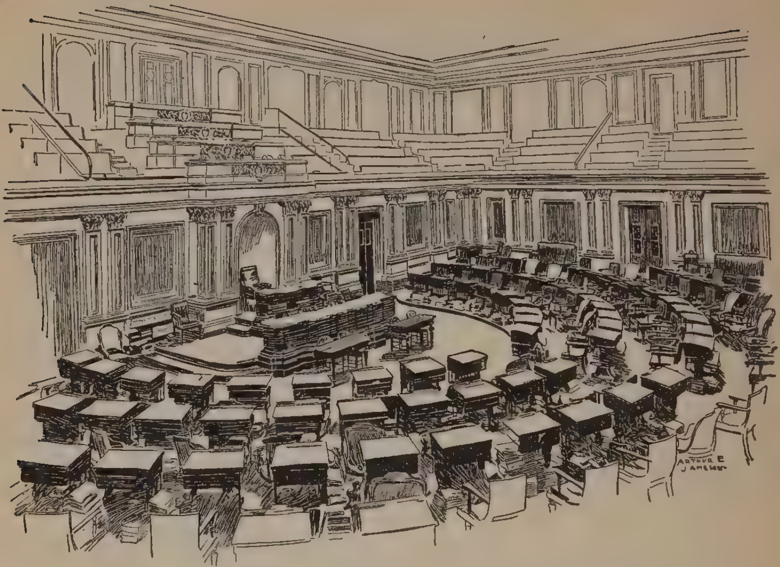
Rapid growth of Oklahoma.

400. Pension Bill (1890).—In 1890 Congress passed a Pension Bill which was very liberal to the soldiers and sailors injured in defending the Union during the Civil War. In accordance with this measure the government paid in pensions, to the close of 1903, more than $137,000,000 a year, on an average. This sum will be diminished gradually as our veterans pass away. No other nation has ever before been so liberal to its soldiers and sailors, nor has any other nation, with the possible exception of Germany, ever had in its service an army and navy ranking so high in intelligence and fighting ability. Well may we be proud of American manhood as it was seen on the battle-fields of this war.

401. The Pan-American Congress (1889–1890).—The attention of the people of this country during the past generation has naturally been given, for the most part, to questions of internal polity and development. But questions of wider import have now and then been brought to the front. The relations of this country to the countries of South America present a still unsettled problem. More than one American statesman has cherished the hope of bringing about closer relations and more friendly feelings between the United States and the leading independent countries of North and South America. Hence our government invited these countries to send representatives to a congress to meet at Washington.

The invitation was accepted, and the Pan-American Congress was held in the autumn of 1889. Seventeen countries were represented by sixty-six members. Questions concerning closer business relations and better means of communication between the various countries represented in the Congress were discussed. But by far the most important work of the Pan-American Congress was its recommendation

What the Pan-American Congress did.



SENATE CHAMBER, WASHINGTON, D. C.

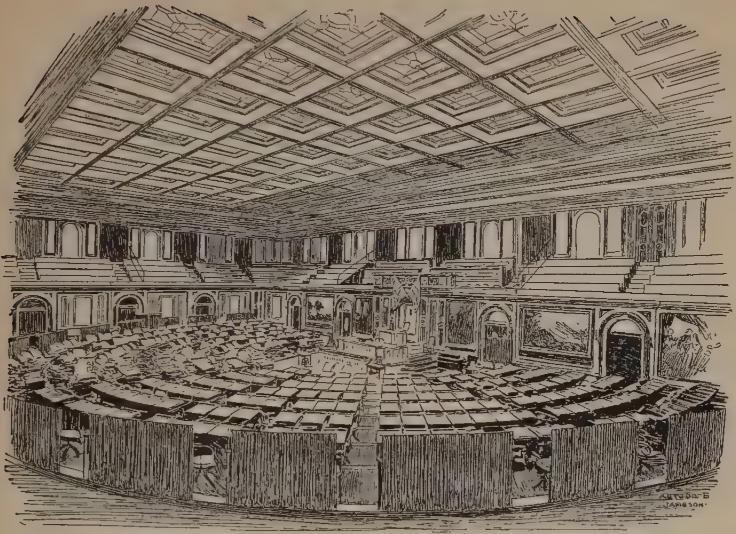
that the republics of North, Central, and South America should settle by arbitration all disputes and difficulties that might arise among them.

402. Trouble with Italy (1890) and with Chili (1891).— The desirability of a system of arbitration with foreign countries was made suddenly and painfully evident. In 1890, on the failure of the jury to convict some Italians on trial for assassinating the New Orleans Chief of Police, a party of lynchers, indignant at this failure of justice, broke into the jail and put to death eleven Italian prisoners. As three of these men were Italian citizens there was serious trouble with Italy over the lynching; but through our able Secretary of State, James G. Blaine, a satisfactory settlement was reached when our government agreed to pay $25,000 to the families of the murdered men.

Assassination of the New Orleans Chief of Police.

Three Italian citizens lynched.

Equally unexpected and unwelcome was the complication with Chili. In 1891, in the streets of Valparaiso, a mob



HALL OF THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES, WASHINGTON, D. C.

attacked[1] some sailors from the American warship *Baltimore*, killing two of them and wounding eighteen others. When the United States demanded satisfaction, Chili disavowed the act and agreed to pay damages to our government.

403. Our New Navy (1883–).—These various difficulties with foreign nations showed the need of a more powerful navy. During the twenty years succeeding the Civil War nothing was done to build up or maintain our navy. The ships that had served during the war had either been disposed of or had gradually become useless through age. Such a navy could afford but small protection to our commerce and extensive sea-coast, and was unworthy of a great nation like the United States.

Need of a new navy.

---

[1] A revolution having broken out in Chili, our Minister there took sides with the Chilian president. Moreover, a Chilian cruiser had been seized in a port of California because she was thought to be on the point of sailing with a supply of arms for the revolutionists. Hence the anger of the Chilian mob.

Finally, people began to realize its worthlessness and took measures to improve its condition. Accordingly, in 1883 Congress authorized the building of four steel cruisers. This was a beginning. Since that time other cruisers of great strength and speed, and battle-ships of immense power, have been brought into use. The cruisers are for the protection of our commerce and the destruction of the enemy's commerce in case of war.

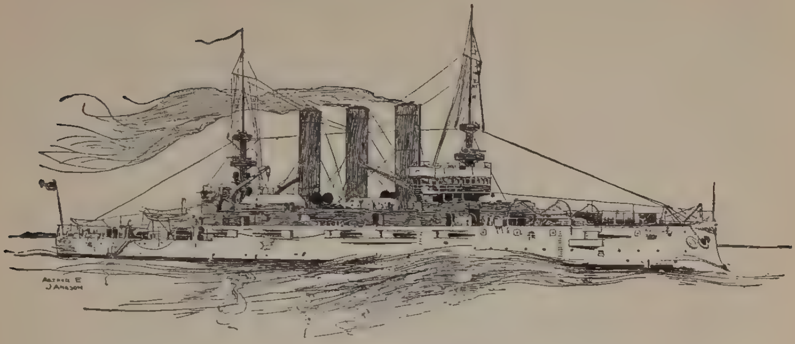
The strength of our navy.

JAMES G. BLAINE.

404. The Australian Ballot System Introduced into Most of the States (1888–1892).—By the year 1888 public opinion demanded a sweeping reform in the methods of voting at State and national elections. Votes were so easily bought and sold that the results of the election in some cases seemed to depend in a large measure upon the amount of money spent in buying votes. This was a serious menace to our institutions and was highly demoralizing. The feeling of the people against this corruption of American manhood soon expressed itself in an emphatic way. State after State passed ballot-reform laws, the purpose of which was to lessen vote-buying and to give voters a better opportunity to cast a secret ballot. These laws provided for a method of voting called the Australian ballot system. By this plan every voter could shut himself in a stall and there prepare and fold his ballot, so that no one could know how he voted or interfere in any way with his choice. By 1892 thirty-seven of the States, with the aid of both of the great political parties, had passed such ballot-reform laws.

Demoralizing effect of buying votes.

405. The Bering Sea Trouble Settled by Arbitration (1886–1893).—This movement, important as it was, aroused no great attention abroad. But an international question that had remained long unsettled threatened for a time to embroil us with Great Britain. After the purchase of



THE NEW BATTLESHIP *MAINE.*

Alaska (1867) the United States claimed entire control of the seal-fisheries in Bering Sea. England insisted that the jurisdiction of our government could not extend beyond three miles from the shore, and she therefore encouraged Canadian sailors in seal-catching outside the three-mile limit. So great had become the destruction of seals that their extermination seemed only a matter of a few years. In 1886, when our cruisers seized Canadian vessels and confiscated all their cargoes of seal-furs, the dispute between the United States and England became serious.

England and the United States disagree.

After a warm diplomatic correspondence the matter was referred to a tribunal of arbitration, which decided (1893) that the United States had no right to control the seal-fisheries beyond the three-mile limit. But in making careful provision for the protection of the seals, the decision was satisfactory to the United States, whose main purpose was to prevent the destruction of the seals. The settlement of this dispute without an appeal to arms was, like the settlement of the Alabama Claims (1871), another triumph for arbitration.

The decision.

406. The United States and the Hawaiian Revolution (1893–1894).—In 1893 a revolution broke out in Hawaii.[1] The revolutionists at once appointed a committee of safety which organized a provisional government and sent commissioners to Washington to secure a treaty of annexation. The treaty was arranged and sent by President Harrison[1] to the Senate for confirmation. But before the Senate could act upon it President Harrison's term of office had expired (March 3). Five days after taking his seat, President Cleveland withdrew the treaty from the Senate and sent to Hawaii a minister who recommended that the queen be restored to her throne. Congress, however, refused to take any action.

---

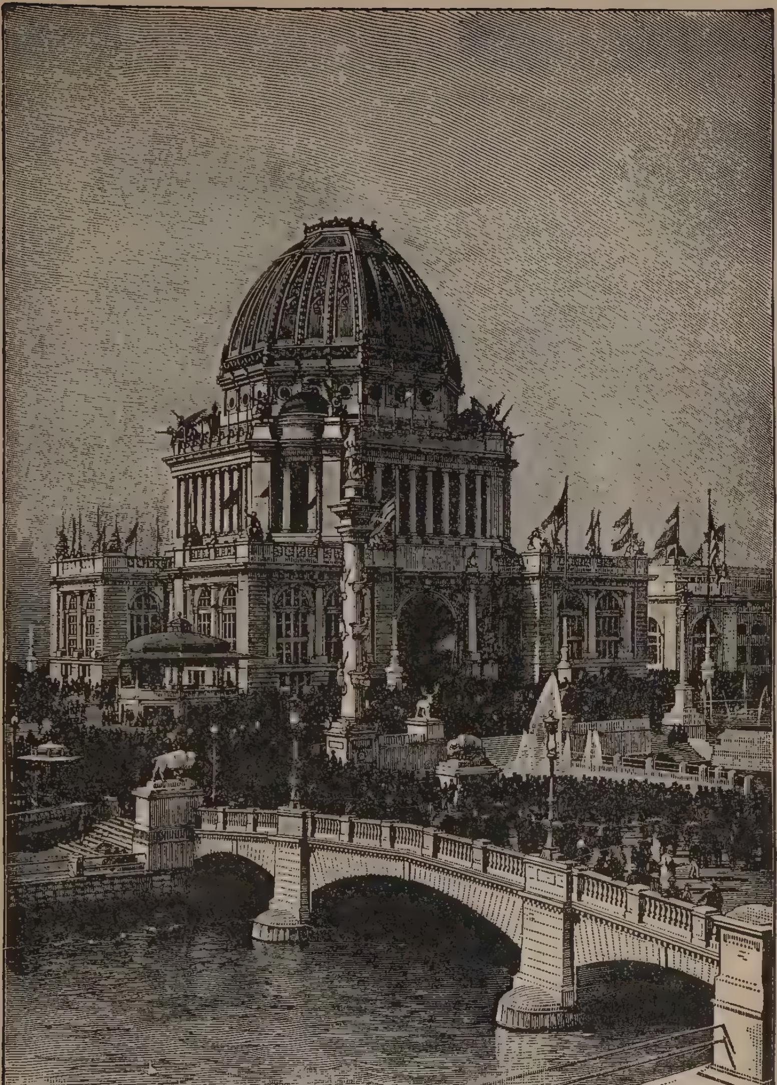
[1] Hawaii was annexed to the United States in 1898, and was made a Territory in 1900.

BENJAMIN HARRISON.

407. The World's Columbian Exposition (1893).—Our history opened with the discovery of America by Columbus in 1492. Four hundred years later the great Columbian Exposition in Chicago celebrated that event. This exhibition surpassed all previous international exhibitions, being regarded as one of the marvels of the world. The location on the lake front was most fortunate, and the buildings were wonderful in their grandeur and beauty. The dedication exercises were held October 21, 1892, and the fair was formally opened in May, 1893. Foreigners were greatly impressed by the evidence of the growth of our people in higher than industrial lines; and Americans were justly proud of the intellectual and artistic advance of their country.

---

[1] Benjamin Harrison, twenty-third President of the United States (1889–1893), was born in North Bend, Ohio, in 1833, and died in 1901. After being graduated from Miami University, he studied law in Cincinnati, removed two years later to Indianapolis, and soon won much success in his chosen profession. In 1862 he entered the Union army as a lieutenant, and a little later, having organized a company of an Indiana regiment, received the commission of colonel of the regiment. He remained in the army throughout the war and rose to the rank of brigadier-general. He became a United States Senator in 1881 and ably represented the State of Indiana. He was elected President in 1888.



AT THE WORLD'S FAIR.

The Administration Building on Chicago Day.

408. Financial Panic of 1893.—While the country was still celebrating the great achievement of Columbus, there came, almost without warning to ordinary observers, one of the worst financial panics the United States has ever passed through. It was called the panic of 1893. There were business failures and financial distress everywhere. As great manufacturing establishments could not sell their goods, many of them shut down their factories altogether or ran them on shorter hours. Soon there were hundreds of thousands of workingmen out of work, with suffering and want in their families. President Cleveland, believing that silver legislation was one of the principal causes of the panic, summoned Congress to repeal the Sherman Act, which it did (November, 1893) after a long and bitter struggle.

409. Silver Legislation (1873–1893).—By 1873 the silver dollar, having become worth more than the gold dollar, had practically passed out of circulation. Very little silver had been coined in the United States since 1834, and for more than twenty years the yield from newly discovered gold mines had been so abundant that it was generally supposed, both here and abroad, that the supply of gold would be sufficient to provide all the specie the world needed. Congress therefore passed a coinage act (1873) which demonetized silver by declaring that it should no longer be a legal tender for debts.

Silver demonetized in 1873.

But many people desired to have more gold and silver money in circulation. Accordingly, in 1878, the Bland Silver Bill was passed, which not only made silver a legal tender for debts, but also directed that the mints should coin not less than two, nor more than four, million silver dollars a month. In spite of this extensive purchase of silver by the government, however, there was a demand for a still larger purchase.

The Bland Silver Bill.

Congress, therefore, passed the Sherman Act (1890), which modified the Bland Bill by providing that the Secretary of the Treasury should purchase not less than $4,000,000 worth of silver bullion each month and pay for it by issuing Treasury notes which were

The Sherman Act.

a legal tender for all debts, and redeemable in gold or silver coin at the discretion of the Secretary of the Treasury. The purchase of silver was therefore increased, but its coinage was no longer compulsory.

410. The Tariff Question.—During the Civil War duties on foreign goods were raised repeatedly for increased revenue to meet the enormous expenses of maintaining the army and navy. After the war no change worthy of mention was made for about twenty-five years. During Mr. Cleveland's first administration (1885–1889) it was found that the internal revenue on tobacco and spirituous liquors, and the duties on foreign goods, piled up in the national treasury $100,000,000 every year, after all the expenses of the government were paid. President Cleveland therefore recommended such a reduction in the tariff as would make the revenue and the expenses more nearly equal. The Mills Bill, representing the policy of the President, was passed in the House but failed in the Senate.

WILLIAM McKINLEY.

$100,000,000 piled up in the Treasury every year.

In the election of a President and a Congress in 1888 the tariff was the main issue between the two great parties, the Democrats and the Republicans. The Democrats demanded a tariff for revenue only, and the Republicans a high tariff for the protection of American manufactures. The Republicans were successful not only in electing the President, Benjamin Harrison, but in getting control of both Houses of Congress. The outcome was the passage of the McKinley Bill in the interests of a high tariff to protect and stimulate American manufactures.

The McKinley Bill.

In the Presidential election of 1892 the tariff plank was the principal difference between the platforms of the Republicans and the Democrats. As in 1888, the Republican policy was a high protective tariff, while the Democratic policy was a tariff for revenue only. The Democrats were successful, electing the President and an overwhelming majority in the House of Representatives. As soon as they came into office they set about a revision of the tariff by passing the Wilson Bill, which, in its final form, differed from the McKinley Bill mainly in the degree of protection it called for.[1] In other words, the Wilson Bill stood for a moderately low protective tariff; the McKinley Bill for a high protective tariff.

The Wilson Bill.

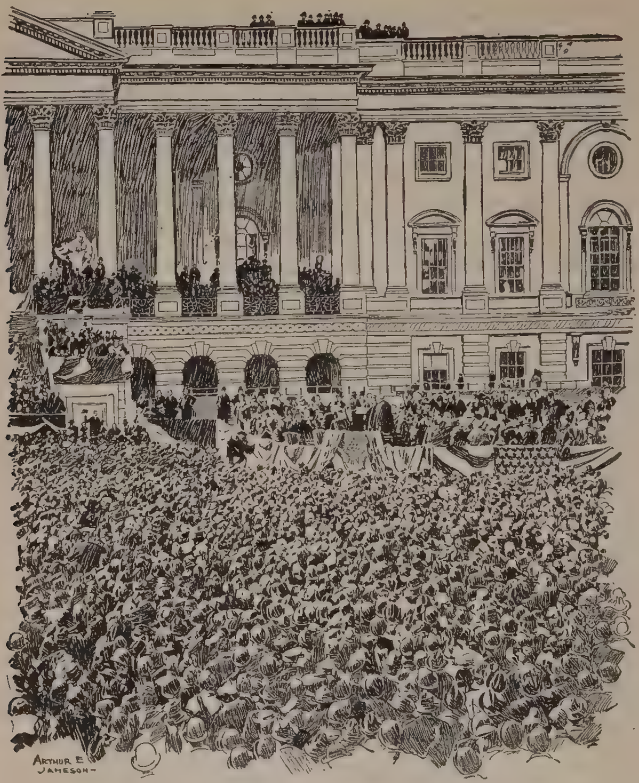
411. The Pullman Boycott and the Great Railroad Strike (1894).—The financial depression of 1893 caused such a decrease in travel that there was little demand for the sleeping-cars furnished to numerous railroads by the Pullman Car Company, located at Pullman, Illinois, near Chicago. Its income being greatly lessened, the Pullman Company decided upon a reduction of wages. When, on receiving notice of this reduction, 3,000 of the workmen went out on strike, the company shut down its works.

The outcome was a strike which soon spread to twenty-two railroads running out of Chicago. Business in Chicago was prostrate, and travel became dangerous. The usual large supplies of meat and provisions going out to various parts of the country from that city were cut off, and a meat famine was threatened. Various kinds of trade and industry throughout the land were thrown into confusion. To aid the local authorities in putting an end to the disorder in Chicago, 2,000 United States troops and 4,000 state militia were sent there. During the strike, the worst of which was over at the end of three weeks, the money losses to workingmen, railroads, and the United States Government were not less than $7,000,000.

412. The Anglo-Venezuelan Difficulty and the Monroe Doctrine (1895–1897).—For a long time there had been a dispute between Venezuela and England about the boun-

---

[1] As an amendment to the Wilson Bill, an Income Tax of two per cent. on all incomes of more than $4,000 a year was proposed, but the Supreme Court decided by a vote of five to four that such a national tax was unconstitutional.



THE INAUGURATION OF WILLIAM McKINLEY.

dary line separating Venezuela from British Guiana. By 1895 the dispute had become serious, and our government tried—as it had for years been trying—to induce England to submit the whole question to arbitration. The English Government declared, however, that England and Venezuela could settle their own disputes, without aid or interference from the United States. Our government answered that if, in this controversy, England insisted upon enforcing her claims to territory not shown to be rightfully her own, she was violating the Monroe Doctrine. In the high-spirited diplomatic correspondence between the two governments, our Secretary of State, Richard Olney, argued the American side with great vigor and ability. There was, for a short time, talk of war; but this war feeling quickly subsided, and England and Venezuela agreed to settle their boundary dispute by arbitration. A most fortunate outcome of the Anglo-Venezuelan dispute was a growing feeling on the part of a large number of people in both the United States and England in favor of the settlement of difficulties between the two countries by arbitration.

413. The Presidential Campaign of 1896.—Scarcely had the excitement over the Anglo-Venezuelan difficulty passed when the United States entered upon an experience which can never be forgotten. This was the Presidential campaign of 1896. The two leading political questions to be answered by the people were as follows: (1) "Shall we have free and unlimited coinage of silver, or shall we maintain a gold standard?" (2) "Shall we have a protective tariff, or a tariff for revenue only?"

Free silver and the tariff.

When the Republicans met in their National Convention to make nominations for President and for Vice-President they declared in their platform that they were in favor of a protective tariff, and that they were "opposed to the free coinage of silver, except by international agreement with the leading commercial nations of the world." The convention nominated William McKinley, of Ohio, for President, and Garrett A. Hobart, of New Jersey, for Vice-President. The Democratic Nominating Convention "demanded," in its platform, "the free and unlimited coinage of both silver and gold at the present legal rate of 16 to 1, without waiting for the aid or consent of any other nation." This Convention also declared itself in favor of a tariff for revenue only, and nominated William J. Bryan, of Nebraska, for President.

The Republicans nominate McKinley and the Democrats Bryan.

Some Democrats, believing in a gold standard, would not join the silver movement, and nominated their own candidates for President and Vice-President; while many voters, who were called Populists, believing that the government should own and manage all railroads and telegraph lines, just as it owns and manages the post-office, nominated still other candidates.

After an intensely earnest and serious campaign McKinley was elected, and was inaugurated President, March 4, 1897.[1] He at once set about the revision of the tariff by calling a special session of Congress. The result was the passage of the "Dingley Tariff" (July 24, 1897), which raised the duties on foreign goods in accordance with the promises made by the Republicans in the Presidential campaign of 1896.

TO THE PUPIL

1. Although the events discussed under "The New Union" are important, their connection is not always easily traced. They require all the more careful study.
2. Discuss the difficulties and results of the Atlantic Cable. Of what value is Alaska to the United States? How many States like your own does its area equal?
3. What grievances had the Indians even after the adoption of Grant's peace policy? What is the reservation system, and why has it failed? What was the Dawes Act?
4. Subject for debate: Resolved, that the Indian has been unjustly treated by the whites.
5. Name the causes of the financial panic of 1873, and show the connection between it and Western settlement. What did the Centennial Exhibition teach the people?
6. What difficulty was there about the Presidential election of 1876, and how was it settled? Observe that Rutherford B. Hayes was President in 1877-1881. Name all the Presidents in order up to this time.

---

[1] William McKinley, twenty-fifth President of the United States (1897), was born at Niles, Trumbull County, Ohio, in 1844, and died in 1901. When the Civil War began he was a teacher in a country school. Although only seventeen years old he enlisted as a private in the 23d Ohio Regiment, which was commanded later by Rutherford B. Hayes. Young McKinley fought so gallantly in the battles of Antietam, Opequan, Fisher's Hill, and Cedar Creek, that he was advanced to the grade of major. After the war was over he studied law and began the successful practice of it in Canton, Ohio. In 1877 he entered Congress as a Republican representative from Ohio, and served almost continuously until 1891. During his last term, as Chairman of the Committee of Ways and Means, he became the author of the McKinley Bill. In 1891, and again in 1893, the Republicans elected him Governor of Ohio, and he gave evidence of rare tact and executive ability. President McKinley was a very effective public speaker.

7. Why was so much paper currency issued during the Civil War? Upon what did the value of the greenbacks depend? What is meant by resumption of specie payment?
8. Review Jackson's introduction of the spoils system and rotation in office. What are the demoralizing influences of this system? What is civil service reform?
9. Observe that James A. Garfield was inaugurated as a Republican President in 1881, and that after his death Chester A. Arthur became President, continuing in office in 1881-1885. Grover Cleveland, elected by the Democrats, was President in 1885-1889. Benjamin Harrison, elected by the Republicans, was President in 1889-1893. For the next four years, 1893-1897, Cleveland was again President, and gave place to William McKinley, who was inaugurated March 4, 1897. What was the Presidential Act of 1886?
10. Prepare to write from three to five minutes on any of the following topics: Oklahoma, the Pan-American Congress, the trouble with Italy, the Pension Bill, and the trouble with Chili.
11. Why do we need a strong navy?
12. What is the Australian ballot system, and why has it been introduced into most of our States?
13. What was the Bering Sea trouble? What was the decision reached in regard to it by the tribunal of arbitration? What is arbitration?
14. Write an outline of the silver legislation, 1873-1893.
15. Before taking up the tariff question here review the difficulties about the tariff which resulted in nullification in South Carolina in Jackson's administration. What were the Mill's Bill, the Wilson Bill, and the McKinley Bill?
16. Review the Monroe Doctrine and Maximilian in Mexico. What was the trouble between Venezuela and England? What attitude did our government take toward this trouble?
17. What were the leading political questions before the people in the Presidential campaign of 1896? What answers did the Republicans propose? the Democrats?

CHAPTER XXIII

THE SPANISH-AMERICAN WAR AND RECENT EVENTS

(1898-   )

OUTSIDE READINGS: **Watterson's** History of the Spanish-American War; **Kennan's** Campaigning in Cuba; **Spear's** Our Navy in the War with Spain; **Russell's** History of Our War with Spain; **Roosevelt's** Rough Riders; **Lodge's** War with Spain; **Foster's** American Diplomacy in the Orient; **Woolsey's** America's Foreign Policy; **Griffis's** America in the East; **Andrews's** United States in Our Own Times; **Wilson's** History of the American People, V.

414. The Cubans Rise against Spain (February, 1895).—Tariff revision and the financial policy of the government were serious questions, but there soon arose an international complication of overshadowing interest, which absorbed much of the thought and energy of the nation. From the beginning of her control in Cuba the rule of Spain was cruel and unjust. The Cubans tried several times to throw off the galling yoke, but in vain. In February, 1895, however, they organized in eastern Cuba an insurrection that within a year spread to the western end of the island.

THE WRECK OF CERVERA'S FLAGSHIP *COLON.*

Copyright, 1899, by Strohmeyer & Wyman.

The brutal policy of concentration.

In alarm the Spanish Government decided upon severe measures, and appointed General Weyler as governor-general. He drove the country people into towns and cities, burned their dwellings, and destroyed everything that might furnish support to the fighting Cubans. Such was the brutal policy of concentration. By this policy General Weyler hoped to starve the people into submission, but he failed. Blanco succeeded him as governor-general and tried by a milder policy to win the Cubans back to Spain. The Cubans' cry, however, was, "Independence or death!" At the end of three years, with an army of more than 200,000, Spain had made little headway in putting down the insurrection.

W. S. SCHLEY.

415. Blowing up the Maine.—As the war went on American indignation grew bitter. In the midst of a period of deep feeling aroused by the inhuman methods of conducting the war, the people of the United States were shocked by an awful event. On the night of February 15, 1898, the American battle-ship *Maine*, lying in the harbor of Havana, was blown up, two hundred and sixty-six of her sailors being killed by the explosion. Great excitement swept over the country. The President at once appointed a naval court of inquiry, which, after four weeks of investigation, reported that the *Maine* was blown up by the explosion of a submarine mine. The American people, holding Spanish officials responsible for the destruction of the *Maine*, were more than ever inclined to insist that Spain should end the war. President McKinley did all in his power to bring about a settlement of the trouble, but without success.

The Maine and the submarine mine.

416. War Declared (April, 1898).—In the meantime affairs in Cuba were becoming worse every day. The President, urged by an impatient Congress to decisive action, declared, in a message sent to that body: "In the name of humanity, in the name of civilization, in behalf of endangered American interests which give us the right and the duty to speak and to act, the war in Cuba must stop."

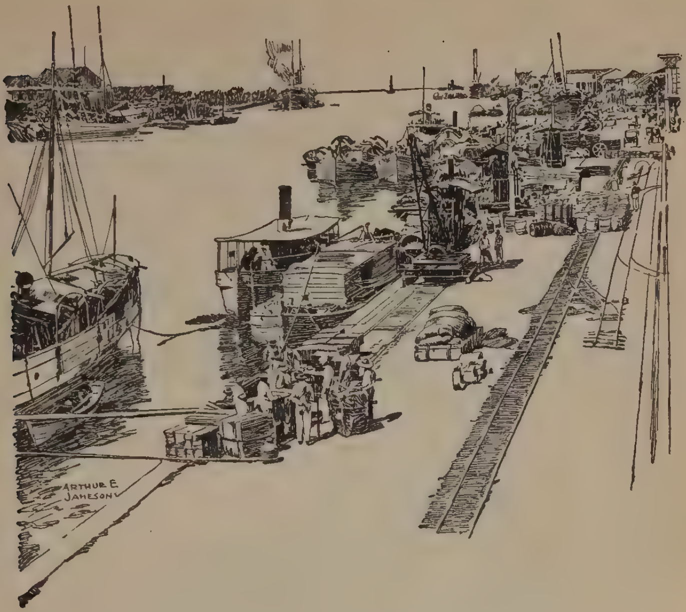
Spain must give up Cuba.

Congress responded by passing a joint resolution to the following effect: (1) The Cubans are free and independent; (2) Spain must give up all authority in Cuba and withdraw her troops; (3) The United States will exercise control over Cuba long enough to restore peace and good order, and will then leave the island under the control of the Cubans. A little later Congress declared that war had existed since April 21st, and in due time the President called for 200,000 volunteers from the various States and Territories. Congress voted that the regular army also should be increased to 62,000.

GEORGE DEWEY.

417. Dewey's Brilliant Victory at Manila.—Commodore Dewey, the commander of the American fleet in Asiatic waters, was ordered to sail at once for the Philippine Islands and capture or destroy the Spanish fleet. He hastened to Manila, where he found (May 1st) the Spanish fleet lying under the protection of strong shore batteries. With a daring unsurpassed he headed his ships for the enemy. While his flagship was steaming boldly into action, two submarine mines exploded just in front of her, but Commodore Dewey did not falter. The skilful seamanship of the Americans and the rapid and accurate handling of their guns made the battle short and decisive. The entire Spanish fleet of ten war-vessels was destroyed, and 1,200 Spaniards were killed or wounded. Not one American was killed and only eight were wounded, and not one American vessel received serious injury. It was one of the most brilliant naval victories in history.

The Spanish fleet destroyed.



SHIPPING AND DOCKS, PASIG RIVER, MANILA.

Admiral Dewey[1] could have captured Manila, but, not having men enough to hold it, he had to wait for reinforcements. As soon as possible over 15,000 soldiers were sent under General Merritt to co-operate with the American fleet. After a combined attack was made upon Manila by the army and the fleet, the city surrendered (August 13th).

418. The Coming of Cervera's Fleet.—Until the Spanish fleet at Manila had been destroyed, there was fear of an attack upon our Pacific coast. And there was still grave fear that an attack might be made upon the great Atlantic seaports by the Spanish fleet under the command of Admiral Cervera. At the outbreak of the war this fleet was at the Cape Verde Islands, whence it soon steamed away toward Cuban waters.

What were Cervera's plans? Would he try to reach Havana by attacking the American fleet which, under the

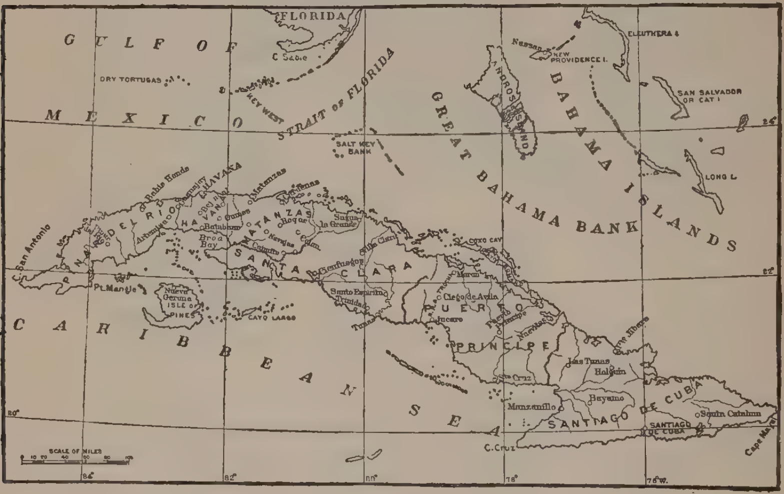
---

[1] On the news of the victory the President appointed Dewey as acting admiral.

Cervera's plans.

command of Admiral Sampson, was blockading the northern coast of Cuba? Would he steer directly for some great city on the Atlantic coast? Or would he try to intercept the *Oregon*[1] on her way up the eastern coast of South America? Events soon answered these questions.

Cervera arrived at Martinique and then sailed for the Dutch island Curaçao off the coast of Venezuela, where he



CUBA.

Cervera "bottled up" at Santiago.

got much-needed coal. He was then ordered to Santiago, which, on account of the highlands and the narrow mouth of its protected harbor, was thought to be a good hiding-place while taking on coal and other supplies. Soon after his arrival the fleet under Commodore Schley discovered and blockaded the harbor. The Spanish fleet was now "bottled up."

Still there was fear that Cervera might on some dark, stormy night succeed in getting away. To prevent this, a

---

[1] This great battle-ship had, on March 19, begun her remarkable journey of some 15,000 miles from San Francisco around Cape Horn. On May 24th the *Oregon* arrived safely and soon joined the blockading squadron.

UNITED STATES TROOPS LANDING AT BAIQUIRI, CUBA.

Lieutenant Hobson's daring exploit.

daring plan was laid to sink the collier *Merrimac* directly across the very narrow entrance to the harbor. Lieutenant Hobson and seven other heroic men tried to carry out this plan; but a Spanish shot having carried away the rudder of the *Merrimac* before she could be blown up, Hobson did not succeed in sinking her directly across but only along the channel, and thus but partly obstructed it.

Roosevelt Rough Riders at Las Guasimas.

419. On to Santiago.—A plan of campaign in Cuba was quickly organized, and an army of 15,000 men was soon on its way to unite with Admiral Sampson's squadron for the capture of Santiago and Cervera's fleet. A little later the troops were on Cuban soil, pressing on toward Santiago. The advance had hardly begun when a battle took place at Las Guasimas[1] between about 1,000 Americans, among whom were the famous Roosevelt Rough Riders, and a force of Spaniards considerably larger. This battle was fought in a tropical forest, where the dense undergrowth often made it impossible to see the enemy a few yards away. The Americans advanced in a series of short, desperate rushes, by which they steadily drove the Spaniards before them and won a signal victory.

---

[1] The first engagement was at Guantanamo, where 600 American marines gallantly held their ground against an attack of greatly superior numbers.

420. The Battle of Santiago.—Yet in spite of this victory it was evident that the Spaniards would make a stout resistance. Moreover, the Americans had to face unusual difficulties. The so-called roads were rough paths frequently crossed by rushing torrents without bridges. Under such conditions heavy siege-guns could not be moved forward promptly. But delay meant something worse than Spanish bullets. The intense heat and the extreme dampness threatened the American ranks with deadly disease. General Shafter therefore decided to move on without delay, and on July 1st made a vigorous attack upon the outworks of Santiago at El Caney on the Spanish left and the strong position of San Juan, commanding the city. Both these places were stoutly defended. The battle was hotly contested, but ended in glorious victory for the Americans, who by bril-

A glorious American victory.

THE PALACE AT SANTIAGO ON WHICH THE AMERICAN FLAG WAS RAISED WHEN THE AMERICAN TROOPS TOOK POSSESSION.

liant charges swept the enemy before them and captured the two strongholds.

421. Cervera's Fleet Destroyed.—On the morning of July 3d the Spanish fleet dashed boldly out of the harbor in a desperate attempt to escape. When (about half past nine) it was seen coming out, every American sailor eagerly leaped to his post of duty. The battle was on. As at Manila, the Americans showed themselves superior to the Spaniards in gunnery, and won a victory as brilliant as that of Admiral Dewey. The entire Spanish fleet of six war-vessels was destroyed, 600 Spaniards were killed and 1,300 captured. Only one American was killed and one severely wounded, and not one of our ships was seriously harmed. About two weeks afterward Santiago and the eastern end of Cuba, with 22,000 Spanish soldiers, surrendered.

THEODORE ROOSEVELT.
From a photograph copyright 1904 by Arthur Hewitt.

422. Results of the War.—A large American force under General Miles was then sent to Porto Rico, and was rapidly getting control of the island, when Spain expressed a desire for peace. President McKinley, therefore, appointed a special commission to arrange a treaty. The terms of the treaty were as follows: (1) Spain gave up Cuba and ceded to the United States Porto Rico and the island of Guam in the Ladrones. (2) She also ceded to the United States the Philippines, the United States agreeing to pay her $20,000,000. But there was marked difference of opinion in regard to the clause relating to the Philippine Islands. Some people objected to their annexation to the United States. Others declared that such annexation would aid us in securing trade in China and other parts of the Far East. In the Senate, where a two-thirds vote is necessary before a treaty can become effective, there was prolonged discussion. But the treaty was ratified February 6, 1899.

There was another important result of the struggle besides those set forth in the treaty. The war helped to bring all parts of the country into closer and deeper sympathy. The various sections were united as they had never been before.

423. Porto Rico under the Control of the United States (1900).—The people of Porto Rico were glad to come under the control of the United States. But they did not get rid of all their troubles when they got rid of Spanish rule. They were in great financial distress. The war had paralyzed their trade, and a fierce hurricane had swept over the island in 1899, destroying property worth $22,000,000. The Americans generously came to their aid by distributing immense quantities of food. But to relieve the distress something more was necessary. In the spring of 1900, therefore, Congress returned to Porto Rico more than $2,000,000 that had come into our treasury in the form of duties laid upon imports from the island. Later, all tariff rates between Porto Rico and the United States were removed.

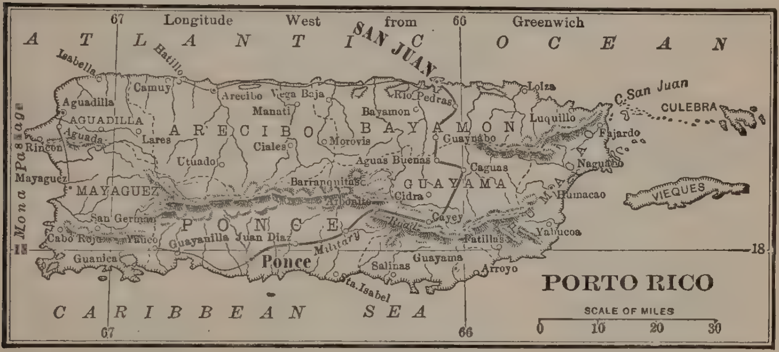
W. T. SAMPSON.

Americans relieve financial distress in Porto Rico.

In April, 1900, Congress passed a law providing for a territorial government. Under this law the President of the United States appoints a governor and the people of the island elect a legislature.

424. The Re-election and Assassination of President McKinley (1900–1901).—Scarcely had the question of civil government in Porto Rico been settled when the country was astir with the excitement of another Presidential campaign. The Republicans again nominated William McKinley for President, and the Democrats William J. Bryan. As in 1896, the leading issue before the country was whether there should be a free and unlimited coinage of silver at the rate of 16 to 1 or a gold standard. The people voted in favor of William McKinley and the gold standard.

Six months after his inauguration, during a visit to the Pan-American Exposition[1] at Buffalo, President McKinley was assassinated. While receiving in line a great number of people in the Temple of Music on the afternoon of September 6th, he was shot by an anarchist who concealed a pistol under a handkerchief wrapped about his hand. This dastardly act sent a thrill of horror through the land. During eight days the nation was held in anxious suspense. Then the President died, deeply mourned by the people. The Vice-President, Theodore Roosevelt,[2] at once took the oath of office as President of the United States.



---

[1] This was called the Pan-American Exposition because all the countries of North America, Central America, and South America were represented there.

[2] Theodore Roosevelt, twenty-sixth President of the United States (1901), was born in New York City, October 27, 1858. He was graduated from Harvard College in 1882, and two years afterwards was elected a member of the New York legislature. In later years he rendered valuable service as a member of the National Civil Service Commission, as president of the New York Police Board, and as Assistant Secretary of the Navy. At the outbreak of the Spanish-American War he resigned his position as Assistant Secretary of the Navy in order to help organize the First United States Cavalry Volunteers (popularly known as the "Roosevelt Rough Riders"), a regiment that distinguished itself in the Cuban campaign. By reason of his gallantry on the battle-field Roosevelt was promoted from the rank of lieutenant-colonel to that of colonel. The year after the war he was elected Governor of New York, and in 1901 Vice-President of the United

Aguinaldo, the leader of a rebellion.

425. Military and Civil Government in the Philippine Islands (1899-1901).—Before the treaty of peace at the end of the Spanish-American War could be ratified, some of the Filipinos, led by Aguinaldo, rebelled against the authority of the United States (February, 1899). After hard fighting, Aguinaldo's forces were driven from their position near Manila and then out of Malolos, the rebel leader's capital. But the rebels continued their desperate struggle against a large American army[1] until Aguinaldo was captured in April, 1900. From that time the rebellion offered no serious resistance.

NELSON A. MILES.

Civil government in the Philippine Islands.

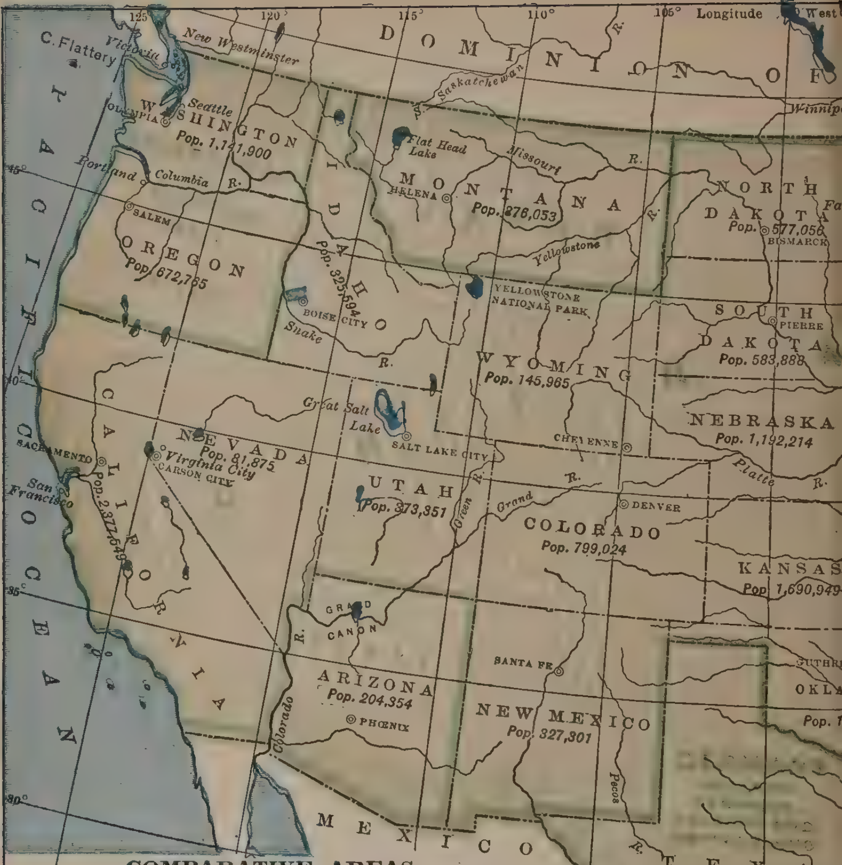
The islands remained under military rule until July 1, 1901, when civil government was established, a special effort being made to give the people as large a share in their government as they had capacity to exercise. William H. Taft was appointed governor. For ten months he had worked zealously as chairman of the civil commission appointed for the purpose of organizing the best attainable government for the Filipinos. Governor Taft's administration was successful in securing good order and popular content.

The scramble for Chinese territory.

426. China and the "Open Door" (1900).—Our presence in the Philippine Islands and our rapidly increasing foreign commerce brought us into close touch with affairs in the Far East. After the war between Japan and China in 1894–95, some of the European powers began to vie with each other in seizing large areas of Chinese territory—known as "spheres of influence"—in order to bring them under their own control. In 1899

States. In the midst of his busy public life he has also written many books, most of them in the field of history or biography. In all his work he has labored with earnestness, vigor, and sincerity of purpose.

[1] In October, 1900, the army there contained 71,000 men.



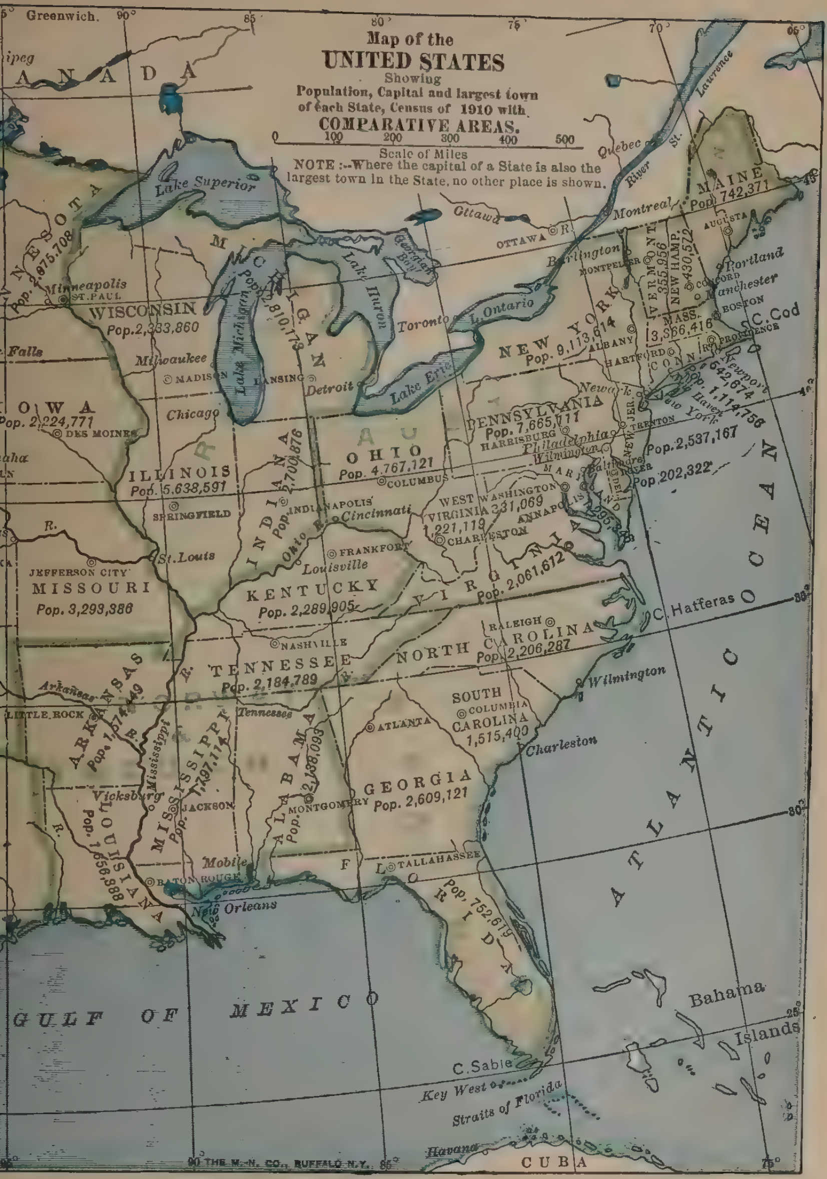
COMPARATIVE AREAS.

	Sq. Miles.
Maine,	33,040
New Hampshire,	9,305
Vermont,	9,565
Total,	51,910
England,	50,867
Massachusetts,	8,315
Connecticut,	4,990
Rhode Island,	1,250
Pennsylvania,	45,215
New York,	49,170
Ohio,	41,060
Delaware,	2,050
New Jersey,	7,815
Maryland,	12,210
Virginia,	42,450
West Virginia	24,780
Total,	239,305
Austria,	240,942

	Sq. Miles.
North Carolina,	52,250
South Carolina,	30,570
Georgia,	59,475
Florida,	58,680
Total,	200,975
Spain,	197,670
Kentucky,	40,400
Tennessee,	42,050
Mississippi,	46,810
Alabama,	52,250
Louisiana,	48,720
Arkansas,	53,850
Total,	284,080
Norway & Sweden,	297,321
Texas,	265.780
Germany, Holland, Denmark, Belgium and Switzerland,	265.956

	Sq. Miles.
Minnesota,	83,365
Iowa,	56,025
Missouri,	69,415
Oklahoma,	70,430
Kansas,	82,080
Nebraska,	77,510
South Dakota,	77,650
North Dakota,	70,795
New Mexico,	122,580
Colorado,	103,925
Wyoming,	97,890
Utah,	84,970
Idaho,	84,800
Nevada,	110,700
California,	158,360
Total,	1,350,495
China,	1,336,841
Arizona,	113,020
Italy,	114,410

	Sq. Miles.
Wisconsin,	56,040
Michigan,	58,915
Illinois,	56,650
Indiana,	36,350
Total,	207,955
France,	204,092
Montana,	146,080
Japan,	147,655
Washington,	69,180
Oregon,	96,030
Total,	165,210
Gt. Britain, Portugal and Greece,	180,058



Map of the
UNITED STATES
Showing
Population, Capital and largest town
of each State, Census of 1910 with
COMPARATIVE AREAS.

NOTE :--Where the capital of a State is also the largest town in the State, no other place is shown.

Secretary Hay urged these powers to unite in guaranteeing to all nations equal rights of trade in China. The powers agreed to carry out his wishes, and thus established the policy of the "open door." By securing an agreement to this policy Secretary Hay did much to prevent the break-up or "partition" of the Chinese Empire for the benefit of those European powers that coveted her territory for their own enrichment.

The unseemly scramble for her territory developed in China a bitter anti-foreign sentiment, which culminated in 1900 in a serious outbreak. Some foreigners were killed, and even the lives of foreign ministers in Peking were in danger. In order to put down the uprising and rescue the legations, the European powers, Japan, and the United States found it necessary to send troops to Peking. In the settlement of the difficulties in China our government exercised a predominating influence in favor of fair treatment of the Chinese. This was an incident in the persistent policy of the United States to preserve the territorial integrity of China.

NATIVE TAGALO CHILDREN, MALABON.

The Chinese uprising against foreigners.

427. The Republic of Cuba (1902).—While these events were taking place in the Far East, others of deep concern to us were taking place at our very doors. When Spain gave us Cuba, the island came under the military authority of the United States. According to a joint resolution passed by Congress before the outbreak of the war, this military control was to continue until order should be restored and the Cubans should organize a government satisfactory to Congress. Early in November, 1900, a convention of Cubans met at Havana, and before the middle of February, 1901, completed a constitution modelled after that of the United States. On January 1, 1902, a president and members of congress were appointed in accordance with the provisions of the Cuban Constitution, and on May 20, 1902, the new Cuban government was formally inaugurated. True to its pledges, the United States handed over the control of affairs to the recognized official, and the people of the young republic entered upon their full independence.

The Cubans organize a government.

PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

In Cuba, as in Porto Rico and the Philippine Islands, the United States greatly improved sanitary conditions and rapidly organized an effective system of public schools.

In December, 1903, the Cuban Reciprocity Act was passed. This provided for a reduction of twenty per cent. of the Dingley Tariff rates on Cuban imports into the United States, and thus greatly increased Cuban trade.

428. The Isthmian Canal (1901–1904).—For some time our growing commercial interests had led many people to believe that we should be benefited by the construction of a canal across the Isthmus of Panama or some narrow part of Central America. But public opinion in the United States demanded that such a canal should be owned and controlled by our government. In accordance with this sentiment, therefore, the Hay-Pauncefote treaty between England and the United States was signed in November, 1901. By the terms of this treaty the United States was to have sole power to construct, control, and defend an Isthmian Canal for the benefit of the commerce of the world.

The Hay-Pauncefote Treaty.

The next step toward the construction of such a canal was the passage by Congress in June, 1902, of the Isthmian Canal Act. This act empowered the President to secure the unfinished Panama Canal at a cost not to exceed $40,000,000, and also to secure from the Republic of Colombia a strip of land, at least six miles wide, extending across the Isthmus of Panama. Within this strip of land the United States was to construct, operate, and protect a canal with control of its terminal ports. If, however, the unfinished Panama Canal and the land from Colombia could not be secured in a reasonable time and on reasonable terms, the President was empowered to secure a canal route from Costa Rica and Nicaragua.

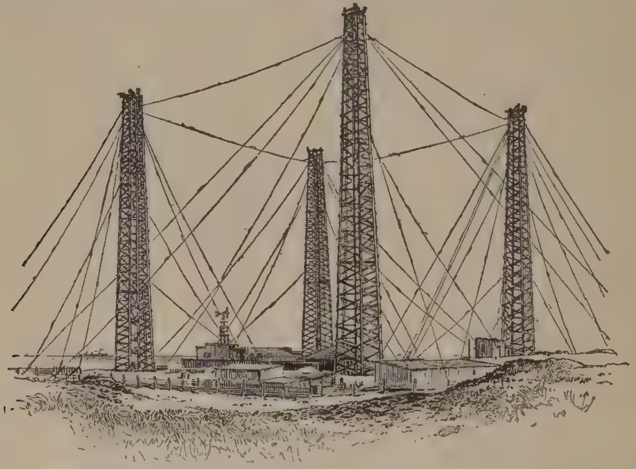
The Isthmian Canal Act.

The revolution in Panama.

When the Colombian government rejected the treaty containing the conditions expressed in the Isthmian Canal Act, the people of the State of Panama, feeling that their interests had been disregarded, planned a revolution, which broke out on November 3, 1903. They quickly organized a provisional government and proclaimed their political independence as the Republic of Panama. The new republic was recognized by the United States, November 6th.

The treaty with Panama.

On November 18th a new canal treaty was signed by Secretary Hay and the representatives of Panama. By the terms of this treaty Panama granted to the United States "in perpetuity the use, occupation, and control" of a zone of land ten miles wide on the margins of the canal. In return the United States guaranteed the independence of Panama, the payment of $10,000,000 when the treaty should become active, and at the end of nine years an annual payment of $250,000.


WIRELESS TELEGRAPH STATION AT WELLFLEET, CAPE COD.

The Senate of the United States adopted this treaty on February 23, 1904.

429. The Pacific Cable and Wireless Telegraphy (1903).—Another link in the chain of communication which is drawing the nations of the earth more closely together is the Pacific Cable. This was completed in 1903 and extends from San Francisco to Hong Kong by way of Hawaii and Manila. On July 4, 1903, President Roosevelt sent the first message, which flashed around the world in four minutes.

Of less importance to commerce, but of unmeasured value in other ways, is the wonderful invention of the Marconi wireless telegraph, by which messages are sent through the air. On January 18, 1903, from the station at Wellfleet on Cape Cod, President Roosevelt sent to King Edward of England the first wireless message to cross the Atlantic.

430. The Louisiana Purchase Exposition at St. Louis (1904).—Long before these events took place the people of the United States had been intent upon carrying out a great enterprise. This was the Louisiana Purchase Exposition, planned to commemorate the centennial of the purchase of the Louisiana territory in 1803. It opened April 30, 1904, and closed December 1st. Like other international expositions on a large scale, it had a great educational influence. Its architecture, its sculpture, and its landscape-gardening were of a high order of excellence, and so were its exhibits of industry and commerce. The latest scientific discoveries were among the remarkable features of this exposition. It is especially worthy of note, however, that for the first time in the history of international expositions, the educational exhibit had a building exclusively for itself.

431. Theodore Roosevelt Elected President (1904).—While interest in the Louisiana Purchase Exposition was still at its height, the public mind was earnestly engaged in considering the Presidential nominations that were to be made in the summer of 1904. When the national conventions of the two great parties met, the Republicans nominated Theodore Roosevelt, and the Democrats Alton B. Parker.

The principal point of difference between the two party platforms related to tariff reform, but the issue was largely one of the personal popularity of the candidates. As the sentiment of the people was with Mr. Roosevelt, he was elected by a very large popular majority./

432. President Roosevelt as Peacemaker (1905).—From these questions of national interest and importance we turn to one which involved the welfare of the whole civilized world.

War between Russia and Japan.

On February 6, 1904, nine months before the election of President Roosevelt, a terrible war broke out between Russia and Japan. All the Western nations, shocked by the frightful loss of life, watched the struggle with great concern. Finally, when the progress of the war and the condition of the opposing forces seemed to warrant it, President Roosevelt addressed a note to the Governments of Russia and Japan (June 8, 1905). In this note he urged the warring nations, not only in their own interests, but in the interests of the civilized world, to try to agree upon terms of peace.

The outcome was a conference at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, between commissioners from each of the two countries. The people in this and in other lands looked on with anxious suspense as the commissioners continued, week after week, to discuss the question of peace or war. At last, when it seemed likely that the conference had come to a point of deadlock and was about to break up in failure, President Roosevelt, with well-timed decision and tact,

THE ATLANTIC FLEET STARTING ON ITS VOYAGE AROUND THE WORLD, DEC., 1907.

From a photograph, copyright, 1907, by Underwood & Underwood, New York.

brought about a delay until he could communicate with the Czar of Russia and the Emperor of Japan. The result was the sending by the home Governments of such instructions to the commissioners at Portsmouth as enabled them speedily to agree to a treaty of peace. The successful outcome of President Roosevelt's efforts showed the immense influence of the United States in the affairs of the world.

Immense influence of our country in world affairs.

433. **The Atlantic Fleet Sails Around the World (1907–1909).**—In December, 1907, the battle fleet of the United States Navy, including sixteen battleships, started from Hampton Roads, Virginia, on a voyage around the world. The route was by way of South America and the Pacific coast to San Francisco, then westward to Australia, the Philippine Islands, Japan, and China, passing through the Indian Ocean, the Suez Canal, the Mediterranean Sea, and the Straits of Gibraltar. The voyage was completed on Washington's Birthday, 1909, at Hampton Roads, where the fleet arrived after having travelled more than 30,000 miles. Everywhere it was received with great enthusiasm.

This cruise was a noteworthy event in naval history. It not only tested and proved the expert seamanship of our navy, but it called into expression the friendly feeling of foreign powers.

434. **The Second Peace Conference (1907).**—In marked contrast with this cruise of warships was the second Peace Conference[1] held in the same year at The Hague. The first Peace Conference had met there in 1899. These meetings, which included distinguished men from the various civilized nations of the world, were held in the interests of international peace and goodwill. In both conferences our country took a leading part in advancing the peaceful settlement of disagreements between nations.

The old method of barbarous warfare, with its cost of maintaining vast armies and navies, is a great strain upon the people. But even this burden is not to be compared with the frightful suffering and loss of life which is caused by war. Although the United States is a peaceful nation, its wars have cost an enormous sum. More than two-thirds of the national revenue is paid out in pensions, in interest on war debts, and in the support of the army and navy.

---

[1] At the first, 26 of the powers of the world were represented; at the second, 44.

War and arbitration.

PEACE PALACE, THE HAGUE.
From a photograph by Underwood & Underwood, New York.

The Court of Arbitration at The Hague.

It is to be hoped that the day will soon come when all disagreements between nations will be settled by arbitration, just as those between individual men are now settled by courts of law. Already a number of such disputes have been settled in the Court of Arbitration at The Hague, which was established by the First Peace Conference in 1899.

Each nation is represented in this Court by four men who may be called upon to serve as judges in international disputes. When any two nations have a disagreement and refer the matter to the Court they select from among the judges a small number to try their case and settle the disagreement. Many believe this to be a step toward a Supreme Court of the world, which will decide issues between nations as our Supreme Court does between separate States.

435. The United States a World-Power.—Our prominence in the two peace conferences held at The Hague calls attention, in a striking way, to far-reaching changes that have taken place during the last hundred years in this country's relation to the great powers of Europe.

Independence from England.

You will remember that the American Revolution was fought to secure our independence from England. But at the end of that war there was no strong spirit of union among the people of the various States. Even after we organized a new plan of government under the Constitution, our country was so weak from lack of union that it did not command the respect of Europe.

Independence from Europe.

In fact, England and France treated the United States as if it were a vassal. The outcome was the War of 1812, which has well been called the second war of independence; this time it was independence from Europe. In less than ten years after this war, we gave expression to our feeling of independence and national strength by setting forth what is known as the Monroe Doctrine. Its central idea was "America for Americans," and supplemented Washington's Farewell Address, which had for one of its central ideas "Europe for Europeans."

These two maxims stand roughly for the traditional attitude of our nation toward Europe until the time of the Spanish-American War of 1898. When that war closed, Spain had lost the West Indies and the Philippines and we ourselves were in control of extensive territory overseas.

Greater America.

In fact, by this expansion the United States had become "Greater America." Our nation was now a world-power because our interests were world-wide, and our wishes received consideration in any part of the globe. Our people felt the change. They were conscious of new strength. They were ready to solve new problems and had the courage to face new responsibilities. Henceforth the United States stood prepared to take an active and leading part in the affairs of the world.

The chief manufacturing nation.

Moreover, for many years before the Spanish War, we had been wonderfully prosperous. We had amassed almost untold wealth, and had become the chief manufacturing nation of the world. All this, combined with our new prominence as a world-power, made the United States an important rival of England, France, and Germany.

436. **The World-Powers of Europe.**—But these countries, as well as some others of Europe, had been undergoing a transformation. Let us briefly note how there came to be a Greater Britain, a Greater France, a Greater Germany, and a Greater Russia.

Two movements.

After the overthrow of Napoleon in 1815, there were five great powers in Europe—Great Britain, France, Austria, Prussia, and Russia. This situation remained without much change, though with some difference in relative strength, for nearly sixty years. Then followed two movements which altered the entire balance of the European world. The first of these movements was toward national unity and the second toward national expansion.

United Italy.

Italy had been for ages a mere "geographical expression." It was not a single kingdom like Spain, but was made up of several kingdoms and other states, some ruled by Austria and others by the Roman Pontiff. For many years patriots had striven to make of these a united Italy. In 1859 began an armed contest for this ideal. It ended in 1870 with the complete union of all parts of Italy into a single kingdom, with a constitution and a national parliament. Victor Emmanuel was made King.

The next country to form a union of its many states was Germany. Austria and Prussia, the most important ones, had long been rivals for leadership. But in 1866, in a "seven weeks' war," Prussia defeated Austria, and then forced many other states into a new North German Confederation, with the King of Prussia at its head.

United Germany.

This sudden rise of Prussia to a leading position among the great powers of Europe stirred the envy and alarm of the French Emperor, Louis Napoleon, and he welcomed an opportunity to humble the pride of his neighbor. This occurred in the Franco-Prussian War, which began in 1870. But the war did not end as Napoleon had expected, for, within six weeks, he was overwhelmingly defeated by the Germans. They captured the French Emperor, whose people at once deposed him, and at the end of seven months they were in possession of Paris and had conquered France.

The Franco-Prussian War.

Then the Germans compelled France to pay one billion dollars as a war indemnity and give up Alsace and Lorraine. But the most marked result of the war was in Germany herself, where a new Germanic Empire was created. All the German states except those of the Austrian Empire—Austria had by this time united with Hungary to form Austro-Hungary—were now united (1871) in one federal empire, with a written constitution, and with the King of Prussia at the head of the whole. He was also called the German Emperor.

A new Germanic Empire.

Somewhat later, years after this spirit of national union had made itself felt in Italy and Germany, there suddenly began among the European countries a wild scramble for territory in foreign lands. This was the beginning of a fresh era of expansion. "Spheres of influence" were sought in new lands, because of a keen desire for new markets to increase commerce and enrich the people.

Wild scramble for territory.

Of all these countries England had been the most successful colonizing nation. But she had lost her chief

American colonies because she had governed them selfishly and for her own interests. In course of time she found out that she had more to gain by allowing some of her colonies, such as Canada, New Zealand, and Australia, to manage their own affairs, and they remained loyal to her. Although she still held these and others in various parts of the world, she now wanted more.

England.

Germany, having become a strong military power with a large and ever-increasing population, had great need for an outlet to her industries and commerce, which had grown enormously. So she also was stubbornly resolved to gain new territory beyond the seas. France likewise, not wishing to be left behind, was seized with a feverish desire for expansion. She had the old belief that colonies by themselves would bring national riches. Russia alone was able to expand along her borders instead of across the sea; but she needed additional seaports, and these the other powers were determined to prevent her from getting.

Germany, France, and Russia.

By the time the First Hague Conference was held (1899) almost all of Africa and more than half of the great continent of Asia were under control of European powers. Thus you can easily see how, in this era of expansion, there came to be not only a Greater America, but also a Greater England, a Greater Germany, a Greater France, and a Greater Russia. Moreover, in this gigantic struggle for control of new territory all these countries were engaged in world-wide competition for world trade.

Result of expansion.

437. The Spirit of Union and of Nationalism in Canada.—The first colony to profit by England's change in colonial policy was Canada. The people in Upper Canada, or the province of Ontario, and of Lower Canada, or the province of Quebec, had been growing more and more dissatisfied because their legislatures did not have a larger control over their executives and over the expenditure of money. As a con-

Dissatisfaction in Upper and Lower Canada.

sequence of the popular discontent, there was a rebellion in 1837 in both Upper and Lower Canada. Although this rebellion was easily put down, to satisfy the Canadian people England allowed the two provinces to unite into one, called Canada, and govern themselves as they desired.

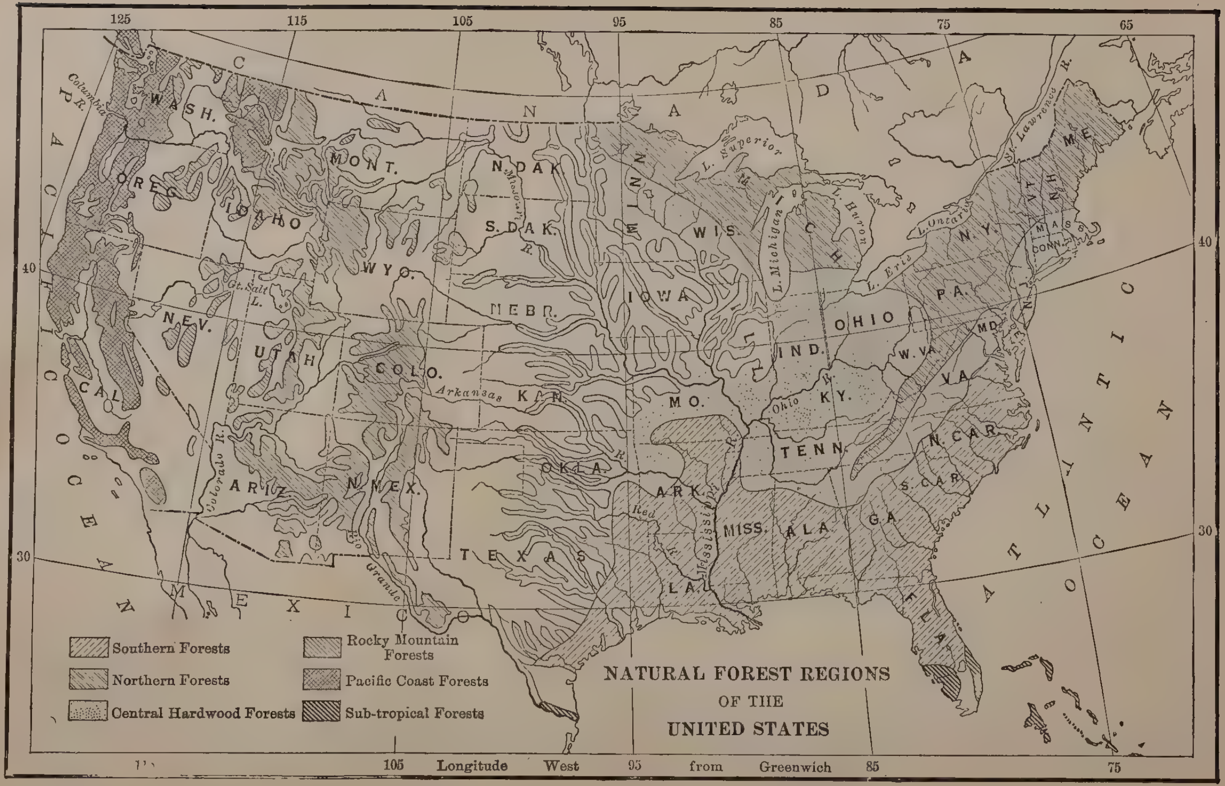
A broader union in Canada.

In 1867 a broader union was organized to include other provinces. At first only four—Ontario, Quebec, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick—joined the union; but not many years later British Columbia and Prince Edward's Island became members of the federation. This desire for union on the part of the Canadians was doubtless quickened by the groundless fear that the United States might attempt to seize and annex their country.

438. The Spirit of Co-operation Among the Nations.—From the foregoing you can easily see that along with the development of the spirit of union and nationalism there has arisen an ever-increasing spirit of rivalry and competition among the great nations of the twentieth century. But, while competition must flourish if the world is to advance, co-operation is of even greater value. Nations are coming to realize it. They are learning that their prosperity and progress come from working together and not by fighting one another. The most advanced expression of this co-operative spirit is found in the two Hague Peace Conferences, of which we have spoken. Their influence should be to strengthen international good-will, on a basis of common sense and humanity, and to uplift the moral and social as well as the industrial welfare of men and women in all lands.

Natural resources.

439. The Conservation of Our Natural Resources.—Another matter of great importance to the welfare of our country was a meeting held in the White House in Washington in May, 1908. It was made up of national and State leaders, whom President Roosevelt had called together to consider the conservation of our natural resources; that is, the best means of preserving our water, forests, soil, fuel, and minerals.



NATURAL FOREST REGIONS
OF THE
UNITED STATES

As a people we had been extremely wasteful of these natural sources of wealth, but with a rapidly expanding population the time had come to use them with care. This is especially true in the case of forests, which have a large influence upon the flow of water in rivers and streams. The meeting at the White House did much to strengthen sentiment in favor of preserving our resources. Connected with it is the work of improving our waterways, such as a plan to establish a ship route from Lake Michigan to the Gulf of Mexico.

From Copyrighted Photo by Harris & Ewing

WILLIAM H. TAFT.

440. President Taft[1] and the Revision of the Tariff (1909).— In the Presidential campaign of 1908, the Republicans were successful in the election of their candidates, William H. Taft as President, and James S. Sherman as Vice-President.

The revision of the tariff.

Shortly after his inauguration (March 4, 1909), President Taft called a special session of Congress for the revision of the tariff. There was a sharp difference of opinion as to how this revision should be made, but after several months of heated discussion, Congress passed the Payne-Aldrich tariff bill, which became a law August 5, 1909. This new tariff law, like the "Dingley Tariff" (p. 408), was highly protective. It was therefore regarded with disfavor by those who believed that there should be a substantial reduction of duties.

---

[1] William Howard Taft, twenty-seventh President of the United States (1909–1913), was born in Cincinnati, Ohio, September 15, 1857. He was graduated from Yale University in 1878, and two years later began the practice of law in his native State. In 1892 he was made Judge of the United States District Court. In 1900 he was appointed president of the United States Philippine Commission, and in 1901 became the first civil governor of the Philippine Islands. He filled this important position with great credit to himself and to his country. He became Secretary of War in President Roosevelt's Cabinet in 1904 and continued in this office until 1908. In the autumn of that year he was elected President of the United States. For this position of responsibility his long experience in the public service seemed especially to have fitted him.

Along with the tariff law, this Congress passed a bill to create a Tariff Commission, but it was abolished by the next Congress. It was to investigate the cost of producing foreign manufactured articles, that Congress might know how high each tariff item must be to protect the manufacturers here.

441. Postal Savings Banks (1910).—Another law passed by this Congress established the Postal Savings Banks. A leading purpose of this law was to develop habits of thrift among people of small means. It was thought that those who could save only a little from their earnings would be encouraged to put their savings into these banks; for they are under the control of the United States Government and are therefore absolutely safe. Any person of ten years or over can open an account with a Postal Savings Bank by depositing as little as one dollar. All deposits pay two per cent. interest.

Postal banks.

442. Arbitration of the Newfoundland Fisheries Dispute (1910).—For more than a hundred years there had been much friction in North Atlantic waters as to the rights of American fishermen there. After many fruitless efforts to settle the dispute, it was referred by the United States and Great Britain to The Hague Court of Arbitration, and was adjusted to the satisfaction of both countries.

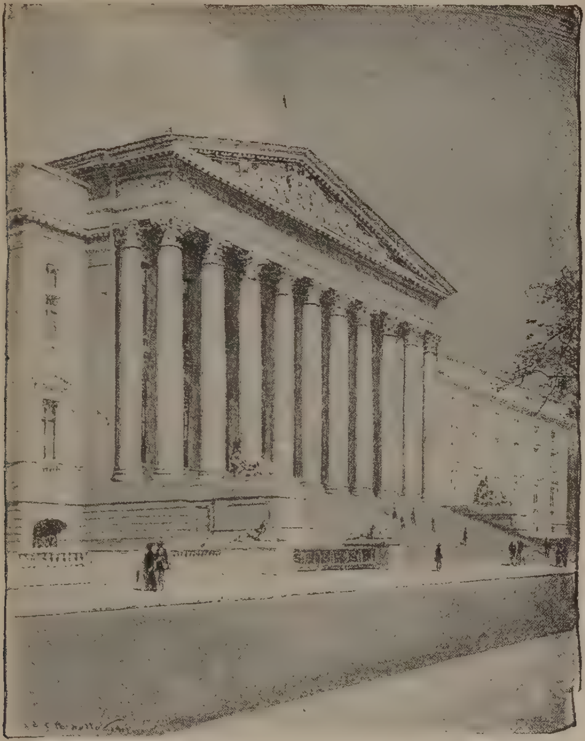
443. General Arbitration Treaties of the United States with Great Britain and France.—This international dispute concerning fisheries is far from being the only one settled by The Hague Court. Almost every important nation in the world has been a party to settlements of this kind.

Moreover, such progress has been made in this direction that since the First Peace Conference at The Hague most countries have entered into treaties by which they agree to settle certain kinds of differences by arbitration.[1]

---

[1] Our country has signed many such treaties.

Usually, however, questions involving "vital interests, independence, and honor are excepted." President Taft strongly disapproved of such formal exceptions, and negotiated treaties with England and France without them. But the Senate disagreed with him. It refused to ratify them without important amendments, and would not "delegate to any other body its treaty-making power under the Constitution." As amended, these treaties required further negotiations.



THE NEW DEPARTMENT OF STATE BUILDING.

Differences settled by arbitration.

444. **A New Treaty with Japan (1911).**—To maintain and strengthen our long-standing friendship with Japan, a

new treaty was signed with that country, setting aside the existing treaty—a clause of which declared our right to exclude Japanese laborers. Their government complained that we placed no such clause in our European treaties, and so our new treaty omits it. But there is an understanding between the two countries which allows us to regulate Japanese immigration as before.

Japanese exclusion.

445. Arizona and New Mexico Made States (1912).—In 1912 Arizona and New Mexico were admitted into the Union as States. Except Alaska and the District of Columbia, all our territory on the mainland has now been made into States, bringing up the number to forty-eight. So to-day, while our national flag contains thirteen stripes to represent the thirteen original colonies, it has forty-eight stars to stand for the States which now make up our great Federal Republic.

Forty-eight States.

WOODROW WILSON.
From a photograph, copyright 1912, by Moffett.

446. Woodrow Wilson[1] Elected President (1912).—A question of absorbing interest to all the States was the Presidential campaign of 1912. During the campaign, issues of far-reaching importance were earnestly discussed.

Issues of 1912 campaign.

---

[1] Woodrow Wilson, twenty-eighth President of the United States (1913——), was born at Staunton, Virginia, December 28, 1856. He graduated at Princeton University in 1879, and took the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at Johns Hopkins University in 1886. He practiced law for two years but gave it up in order to devote himself, as teacher and writer, mainly to history, jurisprudence, and politics. After serving as professor of history and political economy at Bryn Mawr and later at Wesleyan University, in 1890 he was appointed professor of jurisprudence and politics at Princeton University. In 1902 he became president of Princeton University, a position in which he remained until 1910, when the people of New Jersey made him their governor. But before the end of his term of office he was elected President of the United States. During that part of his life which he spent as a college professor he wrote a number of books, most of which were in the fields of biography, history, and politics. While president of Princeton University and governor of New Jersey he gave evidence of marked ability as an administrator. All his work was characterized by sincerity of purpose and high standards of public service.

Among these were the tariff, the proper methods of dealing with the business trusts, and the conservation of our natural resources.

On these great national issues, a new political party was formed. Its members called themselves the Progressive Party. It was made up of Republicans and Independents, and some Democrats who held views which they believed to be in conflict with those supported by the Republican and Democratic Parties. The supporters of this party selected as their candidate for President Theodore Roosevelt. The Republicans nominated for a second term President William Howard Taft. Woodrow Wilson, who was the Democratic candidate, was elected.

447. Reforms to Secure Larger Control over Public Affairs for the People.—In this campaign many States made use of primary elections, or primaries, in selecting delegates to the national conventions which were to nominate candidates for the Presidency. It was believed that in this way the people could have more control in selecting officials to carry out their will. The primaries, as you should know, took the place of caucuses, in which party managers largely, and in many cases entirely, controlled the selection of candidates.

Primaries select candidates.

Another reform to help the people to control public affairs is the short ballot, which is used in several States and in many cities having the commission form of government. Especially in a large city is this reform of great value, because such a city is really a gigantic business corporation, which taxes the people millions of dollars to carry on its various departments—school, park, street, fire, police, and so on.

The short ballot.

To succeed in such a great undertaking, the city government should be well organized and well managed. But up to recent years such has not been the case in many of our large cities. The administration has been too complicated and clumsy to get the best work done with the least expense. As a result, there have been much corruption and much waste of money.

To remedy this defect many cities have adopted the experiment of a commission form of government using the short ballot. By this plan, all the legislative and executive functions of the city have been placed in the hands of a small group of men, usually five in number, called a commission, whom the people elect. As the number of officials is small, it is possible to hold each responsible for the kind of service he renders the public. For the same reason also it is easier to find out what sort of candidates are up for election. For the short ballot is quite different from the long ballot, which in some cities contains the names of scores of candidates, of whom the voter knows very little or nothing. The commission form of government is now in use in hundreds of cities in the United States.

Commission form of government.

Aims to fix responsibility.

The same principle has been carried out in the executive departments of State government by making only a few important officials elective and requiring them to appoint their subordinates.

Other plans designed to give the people direct control of their affairs are the initiative and referendum now being tried by a number of States. By means of the initiative, a certain fraction of the voters may propose a statute which the State Legislature must consider. If it refuses to adopt the measure, it must be submitted to the voters of the State to approve or reject at a regular election. By means of the referendum, a certain fraction of the people may demand that any law passed by the State Legislature be submitted to the voters at an election to approve or reject as they see fit.

The initiative and referendum.

Another plan, intended to make it easier for the people to punish an official for wrong-doing or for unsatisfactory public service, is the recall. By means of this plan a certain fraction of voters may demand an election in which the people shall decide whether or not

The recall.

the official in question shall give up his office before the end of the period for which he was elected.

The movement in favor of popular control of public affairs became so wide-spread that in 1913 the Seventeenth Amendment to the Constitution was adopted, requiring that United States senators be elected by the people. Before the adoption of this amendment the United States senators had been elected by the State Legislatures. This method was not wholly satisfactory, for two reasons: (1) because there were many cases where improper influences were used with legislators to secure votes for candidates; and (2) because it sometimes happened that a legislature would be deadlocked for weeks and even months before electing a senator. The feeling was wide-spread that too much time was wasted in this way.

People elect senators.

448. The Parcel Post (1913).—Another Federal law, which directly affected the people in every part of the land, was the parcel post law. This brought about a marked change in transportation. Before the parcel post came into use, parcels and goods that needed to be moved quickly were handled by express companies, while bulky freight was handled by the railroads, as now. But, as the express companies depended upon the railroads for transportation, they served only those whom the railroads served.

A marked change in transportation.

By means of the parcel post, the United States mail service can carry on a postal express business reaching any locality that is included in our rural free delivery system, even though it may be far from a railroad station. Moreover, the United States postal express carries packages and other goods within certain limits of size and weights for much less than the express companies used to charge. Merchants and farmers have been quick to adopt this cheap means of delivery, and the work of the parcel post has increased with marvellous rapidity.

A cheap means of delivery.

449. The Tariff Law and the Income Tax (1913).—After the enactment of the Payne-Aldrich tariff law of 1909 there followed an increasing demand for more reduction in duties. In fact, the tariff continued to be perhaps the leading issue in national politics. Shortly after President Wilson entered into office, therefore, he called a special session of Congress to consider the tariff question. Following a notable contest, a law was passed (October, 1913) which made a large reduction in the duties on imported goods.

This decided revision downward was certain to bring about a large decrease in customs receipts, and it became necessary to provide revenue in some other way. A section was inserted in the tariff revision law, therefore, levying an income tax. Such a tax had been advocated for many years and had already been made constitutional by the adoption of the Sixteenth Amendment (1913).

Income tax to raise revenue.

The income tax is levied upon incomes of more than four thousand dollars for any married person living with wife or husband, and upon incomes of more than three thousand for all other persons. The tax upon such incomes is one per cent. An additional tax is levied upon incomes that exceed twenty thousand dollars.

The incomes that are taxed.

450. The Currency and Banking Law (1913).—Another law having a very important bearing upon the financial affairs of the people was the currency and banking law (1913). It provides for the Federal Reserve System. The object of the law is threefold: (1) to make the monetary system of the country more simple and uniform; (2) to provide a plan by which there shall always be enough money to meet any special need; and (3) to make it easy for this money to be obtained in that part of the country where the need is greatest.

Its threefold object.

The central body, which has power to control and direct this system, is located at Washington. It is called the Federal Reserve Board. The system includes twelve Federal Reserve Banks,[1] each being a centre of the banking power in its own district.

The Federal Reserve Board.

All the national banks in any district must become members of the system and purchase stock in its Federal Reserve Bank, each in proportion to its paid-up capital stock and surplus. The State banks also may become members if they apply for membership. Only the banks in the system and the United States Government can deposit money in any Federal Reserve Bank.

By this new currency and banking law all the banks in the Federal Reserve System are joined together to give one another financial aid, just as the forty-eight States of our Federal Union are joined together for government aid.

451. The Panama Tolls (1914).—According to the Hay-Pauncefote treaty between the United States and Great Britain, the shipping of all countries was to pay equal rates for the use of the Panama Canal. Many of our citizens held that "all countries" could legally mean all *other* countries than ours. So Congress passed a law (1913) exempting American coastwise shipping from paying tolls.

Other governments, and likewise many Americans, believed this to be a violation of the treaty legally and, even more, a violation of good faith. President Wilson, in February, 1914, in a special message to Congress, asked for its repeal. After long and able debates in both the House and the Senate, Congress passed a bill for the repeal, but incorporated in it an amendment that it was not to be interpreted as

Panama tolls exemption repealed.

---

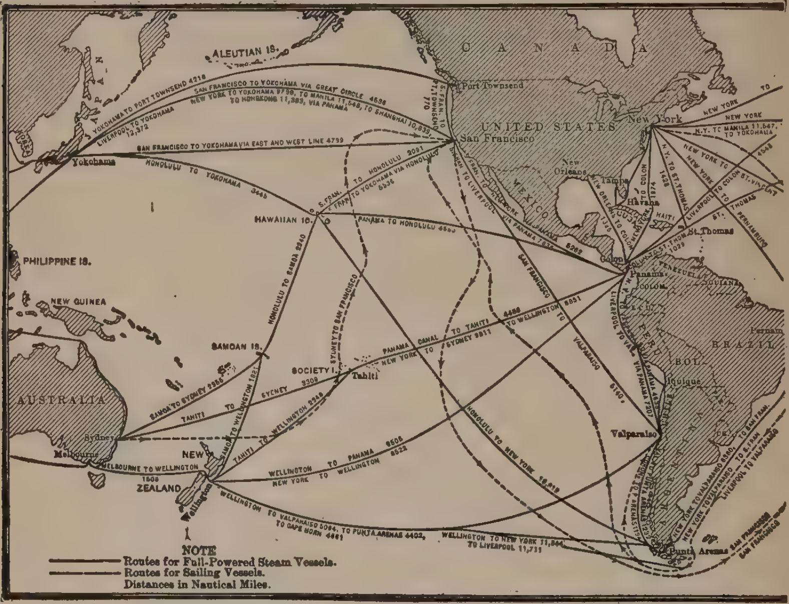
[1] The banking cities are Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Cleveland, Richmond, Atlanta, Chicago, St. Louis, Minneapolis, Kansas City, Dallas, and San Francisco.

giving up any right of the United States under the Hay-Pauncefote treaty with Great Britain.

452. The United States and the Troubles in Mexico. —Although the problem of canal tolls was important, it

Trouble with Mexico.

was at times almost overshadowed by a critical situation regarding Mexico. In February, 1913, an uprising in the City of Mexico resulted in the overthrow and death of Madero, who had been recently elected by the people as their constitutional President.


ALEUTIAN IS.
JAPAN
KOREA
Yokohama
YOKOHAMA TO PORT TOWNSEND 4218
SAN FRANCISCO TO YOKOHAMA VIA GREAT CIRCLE 4536
NEW YORK TO YOKOHAMA 9798, TO MANILA 11,548, TO SHANGHAI 10,839,
TO HONGKONG 11,383, VIA PANAMA
LIVERPOOL TO YOKOHAMA 12,372
SAN FRANCISCO TO YOKOHAMA VIA EAST AND WEST LINE 4799
HONOLULU TO YOKOHAMA 3445
S. FRAN. TO HONOLULU 2091
S. FRAN. TO YOKOHAMA VIA HONOLULU 5536
HAWAIIAN IS.
PANAMA TO HONOLULU 4683
PHILIPPINE IS.
NEW GUINEA
HONOLULU TO SAMOA 2240
SYDNEY TO SAN FRANCISCO
SAMOAN IS.
SOCIETY I.
Tahiti
AUSTRALIA
SAMOA TO SYDNEY 2355
TAHITI TO SYDNEY 3309
SAMOA TO WELLINGTON 1821
TAHITI TO WELLINGTON 2348
Sydney
Melbourne
MELBOURNE TO WELLINGTON 1503
NEW ZEALAND
Wellington
WELLINGTON TO PANAMA 6505
NEW YORK TO WELLINGTON 8523
WELLINGTON TO VALPARAISO 5094, TO PUNTA ARENAS 4402,
TO CAPE HORN 4461
WELLINGTON TO NEW YORK 11,344
TO LIVERPOOL 11,711
CANADA
Port Townsend
S. FRAN. TO PT. TOWNSEND 770
UNITED STATES
San Francisco
New York
NEW YORK TO
N.Y. TO MANILA 11,547, TO YOKOHAMA
New Orleans
Tampa
Havana
MEXICO
CUBA
HAITI
S. FRAN. TO LIVERPOOL
S. FRAN. TO NEW YORK VIA PANAMA 5262
VIA PANAMA 7836
NEW ORLEANS TO COLON 1386
N.Y. TO COLON 1974
N.Y. TO ST. THOMAS 1428
NEW YORK TO ST. VINCENT
NEW YORK TO PERNAMBUCO
LIVERPOOL TO COLON 4548
ST. THOMAS
St. Thomas
COLON TO ST. THOM. 1029
Colon
Panama
VENEZUELA
GUIANA
COLOM.
ECU.
PERU
BOL.
BRAZIL
Pernam
PANAMA CANAL TO TAHITI 4486
TO WELLINGTON 6851
NEW YORK TO SYDNEY 9811
SAN FRANCISCO TO VALPARAISO 5140
LIVERPOOL TO VAL. VIA PANAMA 7207
VIA PANAMA 4633
HONOLULU TO NEW YORK 13,312
Iquique
CHILE
Valparaiso
ARGENTINA
NEW YORK TO VALPARAISO 8380
NEW YORK TO VALPARAISO TO S. FRAN.
TO SAN FRAN.
LIVERPOOL TO VALPARAISO
Punta Arenas
SAN FRANCISCO
SAN FRANCISCO

NOTE
Routes for Full-Powered Steam Vessels.
Routes for Sailing Vessels.
Distances in Nautical Miles.

By the aid of his army, General Huerta became dictator. He soon got control of the centre of the country,

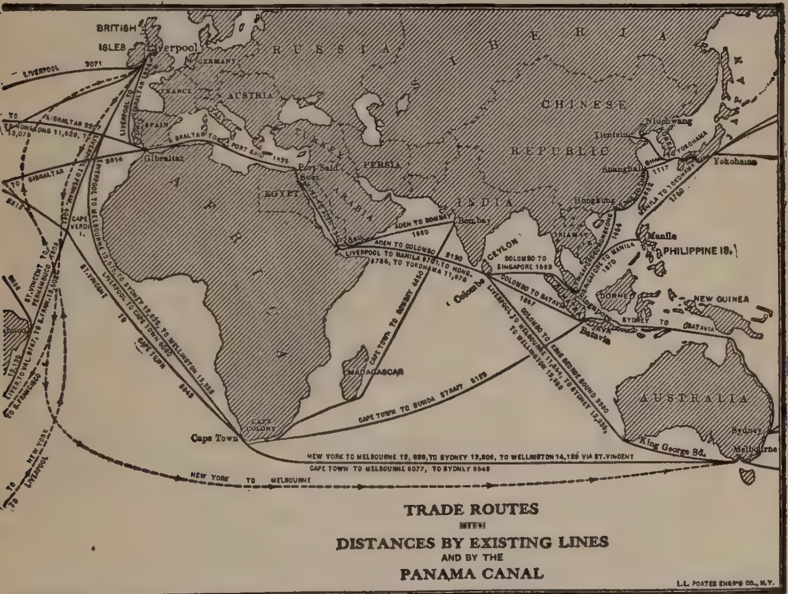
Huerta becomes dictator.

including the capital city. But many of Madero's followers, especially in the states of Northern Mexico, would not submit to Huerta, and took up arms in an insurrection that kept growing in volume and strength. They called themselves Constitutionalists.

Refusal to recognize Huerta.

President Wilson refused to recognize Huerta on two grounds: (1) he had not been elected by the people in a lawful way; and (2), according to the best evidence obtainable, his hold upon power gave too little promise of stability to justify recognition of him by the United States.

This refusal led to much bitter feeling toward our government on the part of Huerta and his followers. Meanwhile, the danger to our own people and their interests in Mexico from the civil war going on there made it prudent to send war-vessels to Mexican waters. On April 10, 1914, a boat-load of sailors from one of our gunboats landed at Tampico to secure gasolene. They were arrested and thrown into prison. Admiral Mayo, commanding the American fleet in the harbor, at once demanded their release. This was granted, and both the Federal general in command at Tampico



TRADE ROUTES
WITH
DISTANCES BY EXISTING LINES
AND BY THE
PANAMA CANAL

American sailors imprisoned.

and General Huerta himself expressed regret over the affair.

Admiral Mayo was not satisfied. In accordance with the long-standing custom of nations, he demanded a salute to our flag by the firing of twenty-one Mexican guns. Huerta refused, and President Wilson sent a fleet of war-vessels to capture Vera Cruz as reparation for the insult to our flag. On April 21 a force of American marines landed there, and after some fighting and the loss of a small number of men they captured the city and seized the custom-house.

Vera Cruz captured as reparation.

It looked like the beginning of war. But before there was any more fighting the ministers at Washington from Argentina, Brazil, and Chile offered to lend their services as mediators. President Wilson promptly accepted the offer. On May 20 the mediators met at Niagara Falls three American and three Mexican envoys in order to arrange a plan of settlement.

Mediation.

Although the mediators did not succeed in ending the trouble between the United States and Mexico, there was no war between the two countries. Moreover, the mere fact that our government was quite willing to accept the offer of mediation from three enlightened and powerful South American states doubtless caused all the Latin-American states to be more friendly toward us as a people. It helped them to understand that we had no thought of making the troubles in Mexico an excuse for getting control, by force, of Mexican territory.

Latin-American States more friendly toward us.

In the autumn of 1915 the United States and the Latin-American powers recognized Carranza as the head of the provisional government of Mexico.

453. The Opening of the Panama Canal (1914).—But an event which is likely to have even greater influence in strengthening friendship and good-will toward us on the part of the twenty Latin-American countries was the opening to commerce of the Panama Canal (August 15, 1914). There is little doubt

The beginning of a new era in our national history.

that this opening was the beginning of a new era in our national history, and for the following reasons: (1) It supplies a short, quick, and cheap water-route between the ports of the Atlantic and the Gulf seaboard and the ports of the Pacific seaboard. (2) The canal shortens the distance between our Pacific States and Europe as well as between our Atlantic States and Australia, the Philippine Islands, China, and Japan. (3) It is also likely to prove a powerful force for good in our relations with the twelve Latin-American states bordering on the Pacific, for the increase in trade and travel will promote a better understanding and a more friendly feeling.

The Pan-American Union.

There is already maintained at Washington an international organization, the Pan-American Union, which aims to develop closer business and commercial relations between the United States and the twenty republics to the south of us, as well as to form closer ties of friendship and good-will. It is important that we should work in harmony with our sister republics represented in the Pan-American Union.

A serious international situation.

454. The United States and the Great War in Europe (1914-1916).—Another event of far-reaching consequence occurred when the great war in Europe suddenly broke out in the midsummer of 1914. This conflict, which involved all the great European powers, put a political strain on the neutral nations who wished to maintain their friendship with all the warring countries. This was especially true of the United States, because the war had a direct influence on our commerce and industry. Not only were the principal markets for our goods and sources of supplies for our factories cut off, but our sea-borne commerce was seriously crippled because most of it was carried on in vessels belonging to the belligerent countries.

But, notwithstanding the violent upsetting of normal trade conditions, in some ways the war has been a source of profit to American business. All the nations at war needed for their armies, and for their civil population, vast quantities of munitions, food, clothing, and other supplies beyond their own capacity to furnish. For the year ending June 30, 1915, we exported such goods to the value of $857,000,000; in the preceding year the value of all such exports was about $221,000,000. This means that our sales to Europe by reason of the war increased about $636,000,000 during the year. For breadstuffs alone we received about $574,000,000 against only $165,000,000 the year before.

Our exports to Europe.

To prevent all supplies from reaching the enemy was of vital importance to both sides. The Allies at the outset completely destroyed the direct ocean commerce of Germany except in the Baltic Sea; while the harm that Germany could inflict on British commerce by submarines and roving cruisers was comparatively small. The Allies then turned their efforts toward cutting down Germany's indirect trade through neutrals. This was a far harder and more delicate task, for it involved the welfare of neutrals and struck heavily at American interests.

Up to the opening of this war food intended for civilians was never considered as contraband and hence could not be lawfully seized at sea when it was on the way to a belligerent port. But changed conditions brought about new methods. Some time after the war began German authorities, including those of cities as well as those of the Imperial Government, assumed control of the distribution of food supplies in Germany. This caused Great Britain to declare, on February 2, 1915, that all food imported into Germany was contraband. Moreover, Germany had placed mines in the North Sea for the defence of her coasts. But these were frequently found far away from the shore, whether through having drifted, as Germany claimed, or "strewn" for offensive purposes, as England claimed. So England established a "war zone" in the North Sea, with only a single lane for neutral vessels. On February

Each side tries to cut off food supplies from the other.

4, 1915, Germany retaliated by declaring a war zone, which included all the waters around Great Britain, and asserted that in this zone she would destroy all enemy vessels. She said it might not be possible to save crews and passengers, and, moreover, that neutral vessels sailing into this zone would be in danger. In return Great Britain announced, on March 3, that she would adopt means to prevent goods of any kind from reaching Germany.

These extensions of contraband and blockade, which were violations of existing international law, led our government to make strong and earnest protests to both sides.

Our protest to Great Britain.

The chief grounds of protest to Great Britain were two: First, that food for a civilian population had never been contraband, and her now making it such was remaking international law by her own fiat. Second, that her blockade was not legal. This was partly because it was not universally effective; it did not control, for instance, the Baltic Sea, where the German fleet kept trade open with the Scandinavian countries.

Our protest to Germany.

Our protest to Germany demanded a diplomacy of such a delicate nature that many feared a serious break between the two countries. In Germany's submarine campaign against England she torpedoed several vessels carrying American citizens. The first of these vessels was the Cunard liner *Lusitania*, which was torpedoed without warning off the coast of Ireland, with the loss of many lives, including American citizens. Our government in a note to Germany stated that American citizens had full rights under international law to travel wherever legitimate business called them; that she must make reparation for American lives and property so destroyed; and that in future she must not allow her submarines either to attack American ships or to imperil American citizens travelling on any ships.

Germany declared that our requirements were equivalent to prohibiting submarine warfare altogether, since the submarine boats were too vulnerable to resist attack and the wireless system made it easy to call other vessels to help. She further declared that she had the right to the only ocean weapon left her and that the peril of innocent lives was a risk which neutrals must take or else be in effect allies of the enemies of Germany. Germany later agreed to make reparation to the United States; but she at that time refused to admit that her course was illegal, and the whole question is still the subject of discussion between the two governments.

Germany's position.

TO THE PUPIL

1. Do you think the United States was justified in going to war with Spain at this time? Give reasons for your answer.
2. Why did Dewey go to Manila? Impersonating him, give an account of your experiences.
3. What were the most important results of the war?
4. Explain the policy of the "Open Door." What is meant by the territorial integrity of China?
5. Explain the following: the Hay-Pauncefote treaty, the Isthmian Canal Act, and the treaty with Panama.
6. In what ways is the Pacific Cable of use to the world?
7. What good results would follow if disagreements between nations were settled by peaceful methods?
8. In what ways is co-operation of advantage among individual men and women and also among countries?
9. What is meant by the United States as a world-power?
10. Explain the following: short ballot, commission form of government, the Sixteenth and Seventeenth Amendments to the Constitution, and the income tax.
11. Why are the Latin-American states, south of Mexico, more friendly to us now than they were some years ago? What are the aims of the Pan-American Union?
12. In what ways has the great war in Europe caused trouble between the United States and Great Britain? Between the United States and Germany?
13. Name in order the Presidents of the United States.

CHAPTER XXIV

SOME INDUSTRIAL, ECONOMIC, SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS AND PROBLEMS OF THE PRESENT

REFERENCES: **Scribner's** Popular History of the United States, V.; **Andrews's** Last Quarter Century, II.; **Bogart's** Economic History of the United States; **Wright's** Industrial Evolution of the United States; **Coman's** Industrial History of the United States.

OUTSIDE READINGS: **Boone's** Education in the United States; **Tyler's** History of American Literature; **Richardson's** American Literature; **Stedman's** Poets of America; **Hudson's** History of Journalism in America; various magazine articles.

455. The Natural Advantages of the United States.—As the United States in its vast extent has many varieties of soil and climate, its productions also are varied. Our coasts offer valuable fisheries, and the prairies and the Great Plains furnish excellent pasturage for millions of sheep and cattle. Extensive areas of forest lands supply

THE ROUND-UP.

the best timber, a large region in the South affords suitable land for the growing of cotton, and rich mineral deposits of gold, silver, copper, iron, and coal lie imbedded in the mountain regions. Our coal supply is many times greater than that of all Europe, including England. From all these sources we get abundant raw material[1] with which to supply our factories and still have many things to spare for trade in foreign markets.

456. The Textile Industry.—But these natural sources of wealth would be of little value without the power to bring them under control and put them to proper uses. This power the American people possess in their inventive genius, their mechanical skill, and their untiring energy. They have, therefore, become leaders in the industrial revolution which began with the invention of steam-driven machinery over a century ago and is still going on. This revolution has brought about such great changes that we may well consider some of its more striking phases.

The industrial revolution.

TEXTILE MILL.

---

[1] In the output of iron, copper, coal, wheat, and cotton—the products which with wool are of greatest use in modern industry—our country leads the world. It produces wool also in large quantities.

The textile industry, a leading one in the United States, well illustrates the growth of all. Up to the time of the American Revolution, and even later, the coarser cloths for ordinary use were made by hand in the household and in small shops, while the finer grades were imported from England. It was not until the close of the eighteenth century that the spinning wheel and the hand loom gave place to the spinning machine and the power loom. These new inventions, imported from England, completely changed the making of woolen and cotton cloth.

The spinning machine and the power loom.

The first spinning mill with machinery made after the English models was built by Samuel Slater at Pawtucket, Rhode Island, in 1790. This was the beginning of the factory system in the United States. But the first factory, in the modern sense, that is, a building where all processes from the raw material to the finished product are carried on under one roof, was erected at Waltham in 1814. Since then the extension of cotton manufactures has been steady and rapid. New inventions and processes and increased demand for cotton goods have given the textile industry a wonderful development.[1]

The first modern factory.

Just as the improved machinery in spinning and weaving transferred the making of cloth from the household to the factory, so the invention of the sewing machine (1846) changed the making of men's clothing from a domestic to a factory industry and the manufacture of boots and shoes from a hand-made to a machine-made product. This transfer of industries from the home and shop to the factory greatly lowered the cost of labor and cheapened production. The price of ready-made clothing and shoes was thus brought so low as to come within the reach of even the very poor.

The sewing machine.

457. **Iron and Steel.**—Another industry which has had a remarkable growth is that of iron and steel. Like the

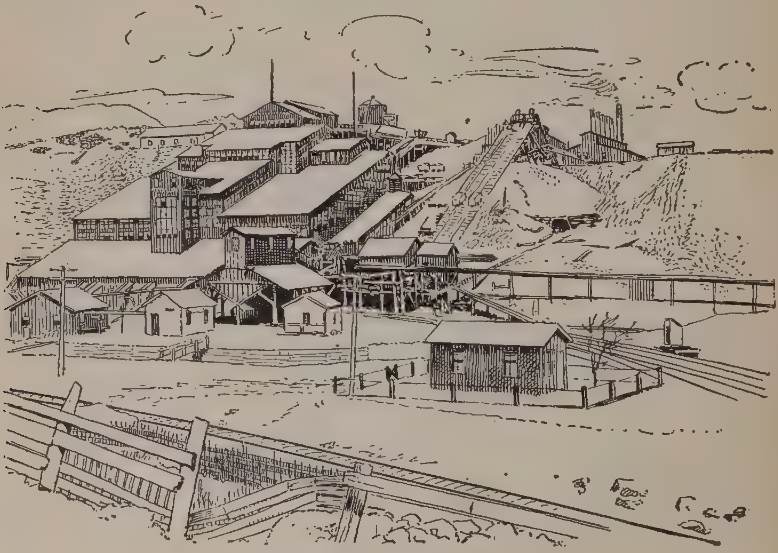
---

[1] Textiles include clothing and fabrics of every description for household and other uses; textile materials include cotton, wool, flax, silk, and coarser fibres.

making of cloth, it had an early beginning but did not increase much during the colonial period. Common farm implements, tools, and household utensils were made in most of the colonies, but the finer grades of cutlery and edged tools were brought from England.

The use of anthracite coal.

It was not until the beginning of the last century that the iron and coal fields of western Pennsylvania began to be worked, and Pittsburg, now the most important centre of the iron industry, had its first foundry (1803). During the years that followed, furnaces, forges, iron mills, and steel works sprang up in all quarters. But the impulse which revolutionized the making of iron was brought about by the use of anthracite (hard) coal instead of charcoal in the process of smelting (1840). It cheapened production and increased the output.


ANTHRACITE COAL MINE.

The Bessemer process (1859) wrought a second revolution. This invention, with the use of bituminous (soft) coal instead of anthracite, gave a wonderful stimulus to the iron industry. By greatly cheapening the manufacture of steel rails it also played a large part in the rapid extension of the railroad system. For steel rails, being stronger than iron, made possible the use of larger locomotives and heavier trains, and permitted a much higher rate of speed. They are, therefore, the foundation of cheap and rapid transportation, which is a great factor in our industrial life.

Steel rails cheapen transportation.

Steel is also used extensively in the structure of bridges, of large buildings, and of war-vessels, as well as in the inventions and conveniences of every-day life. Our natural products of iron and coal have been the greatest forces in the development of manufacturing in this country.

458. Railroad Rate Regulation.—The astonishing growth of manufactures and business in this country since the outbreak of the Civil War would have been impossible without the aid of the railroad. After the close of that war railroad lines were rapidly extended so as to connect the mining and farming regions with cities and factories. In the course of time most of the important railroads in the country were combined into a few systems, and the lines of each system passed through several States. The great railroad companies owning these systems, in their eagerness to secure business, made certain rates which were not fair to all shippers. Some shippers and places were secretly charged less than the regular freight rates. The business companies who enjoyed the advantage of the lower rates were thus enabled, in some instances, to drive rival companies out of business.

Railroad rates not fair to all shippers.

To stop this injustice, Congress passed the interstate commerce act (1887). Its purpose was to regulate trade between the States.[1] This law declares that freight and passenger rates on railroads running from one State into another shall be just and reasonable, and shall be uniform, for like service, for all. The Inter-

The interstate commerce act.

---

[1] Congress can regulate trade *between* the States. But only the State Legislature can regulate trade carried on entirely *within* any State.

state Commerce Commission (first consisting of five members and later of seven) was appointed to see that the law was carried out.

The rate laws of 1906 and of 1910.

As the powers of the Interstate Commerce Commission under this law were not large enough, another rate law was passed (1906). It forbids the granting of free passes and declares that if any shipper complains of a rate as unjust and unreasonable the Interstate Commerce Commission shall have the power to fix a new rate. Still another law was passed (1910), which created a commerce court to enforce the orders of the Interstate Commerce Commission. It gives the commission power to suspend (for as long as ten months if necessary) a new rate, or any rate, in order to find out by investigation whether or not such rate is just and reasonable.[1]

459. The Federal Trade Commission (1914).—As the Interstate Commerce Commission was given power to oversee and regulate railroads and other transportation interests and the Federal Reserve Board was given large powers in the field of currency and banking, in like manner, for the best business interests of the whole country, a need was felt for another powerful Federal board to regulate and control corporations or trusts holding property in several States.

Threefold powers of the Federal Trade Commission.

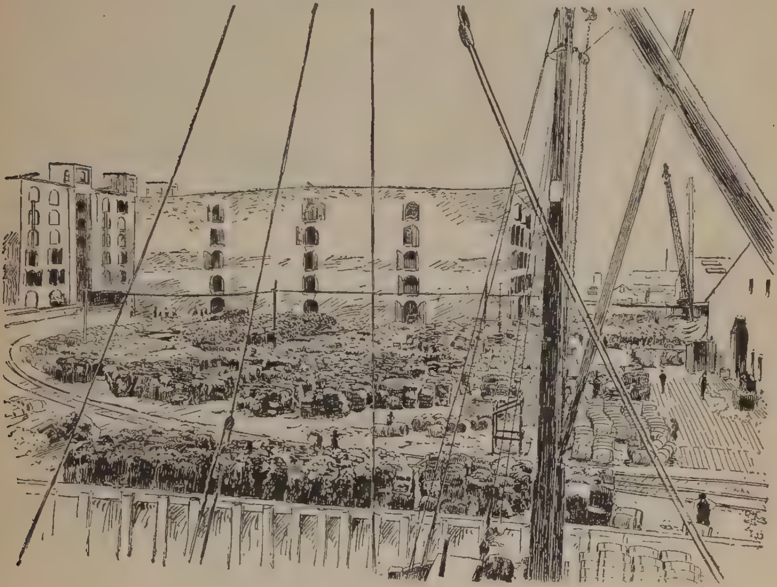
Accordingly, the Federal Trade Commission bill was passed by Congress (1914). It authorized the appointment of the Federal Trade Commission with threefold powers as follows: (1) to investigate interstate corporations in order to find out whether they were breaking the laws; (2) to forbid and prevent unfair methods of competition; and (3) to aid the Attorney-General and the United States courts in enforcing the anti-trust laws.

460. Trusts and the Regulation of Trusts.—The railroad, improved machinery, and the opening up of the

---

[1] The rate law of 1910 applies not only to railroads but to telegraph, telephone, and cable companies, and also to express companies and sleeping-car companies.

West caused manufacturing to increase with wonderful rapidity. Business was extended and competition became intense. As an outcome, rival companies decided that union was better than strife, and large companies or corporations were organized. A corporation formed by the union of several companies was called a trust.[1]



GOODS AWAITING EXPORTATION.

The anti-trust law.

The main purposes of the trust were, first, to cheapen the cost of production, and, second, to lessen and, so far as possible, to prevent competition. But the people felt that the prices of trust-made goods, which often included the necessaries of life, were too high. As the trust controlled the market in its given line of goods, it could fix the prices on the raw materials it bought and on the finished goods it sold. Accordingly, the Sherman anti-trust law was passed (1890). This declares, in effect, that all combinations and agreements made for the purpose of controlling the output and sale of goods and of fixing prices are unlawful and are liable to punishment by fine or imprisonment.

---

[1] Examples of trusts are The Standard Oil Company, The United States Steel Company, The Sugar Trust, etc. The Standard Oil Company controls the output of petroleum, in the production and export of which the United States leads the world. The first oil-well was bored in Pennsylvania in 1859. Since then oil has been produced in large quantities in Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, Texas, and in other States.

461. The Growth of Our Foreign Trade.—Quite apart from attempted regulation of railroads and trusts, the volume of our trade has steadily increased. Our agricultural and manufactured products have more than kept pace with the needs of our growing population, and the surplus has found a ready market among the nations of the world. The foreign trade of the United States is a fair measure of its economic progress. During our first century as a nation we were largely agricultural and had to depend on foreign markets for many of our manufactured goods. By the close of that century the products of our factories more than equalled in value the products of our farms, and to-day we are the leading manufacturing nation in the world. Moreover, during the period of development, our exports did not pay for our imports. But since 1876 our exports have exceeded our imports, and the United States has advanced to the position of the first exporting nation in the world.[1]

The United States leads the world in exports.

Along with the growth of exports has been an increase of imports, consisting mainly of raw materials used in manufactures, and of luxuries, that is, of those things which could not be produced at home. The value of our total exports for 1914 was over $2,364,000,000; of our total imports, nearly $1,894,000,000, making an excess of exports of over $470,000,000. This volume of foreign trade is a measure not only of the expanding commerce but of the growing

The immense volume of our expanding commerce.

---

[1] Only three times during that period—in 1888, 1889, and 1893—did our imports exceed our exports.

TRANSPORTATION IN A LARGE CITY, SHOWING ELEVATED ROAD, SURFACE LINE, AND SUBWAY.

wealth of the nation. And when we learn that our domestic commerce is many times as large as our foreign we get a faint idea of the magnitude of the country and of its business operations.

The many uses of electricity.

462. Electricity in Modern Life.—As we have seen, steam has come to be of immense service to the world by its use as a motive power in driving machinery. But no less remarkable, perhaps, is the work which electricity has been made to do in many ways. The telegraph, the telephone, the marine cable, and wireless telegraphy have already been discussed as useful agents in the transmission of thought. About 1880, by the invention of the arc and the incandescent lights, electricity was applied to the lighting of streets and of houses. Soon after, it came into use as a motive power. Trolley-cars, electric automobiles, electric engines, and electric motors for fixed machinery followed.

But two of the most striking uses of electricity are the transmitting of power from falling water to distant cities[1] and the producing of the X-ray, which enables physicians to photograph the bones and to observe the action of the heart and other organs in the living body. By 1900 the uses of electricity had multiplied twentyfold, and yet to-day they are believed to be in their infancy.

463. Inventions as Aids to Human Progress.—From all that has been said about the uses of electricity and steam and the various forms of invention, we see clearly how science has aided man in bringing the forces of nature under his control. Improved machinery as well as improved methods of travel, transportation, and communication have so cheapened the cost of food, clothing, and other things needed in every-day life that the day laborer can now have comforts and conveniences which even the rich did not enjoy fifty years ago.

Moreover, as inventive genius is constantly making new discoveries, we may confidently look forward to changes as wonderful as any that have yet been made. Two of the most recent inventions are the automobile and the flying machine. Before the close of 1910 the automobile had come into extensive use not only as a means of pleasure and recreation, but also for practical purposes in the city and on the farm. In the

The automobile and the flying machine.

---

[1] Important examples of companies engaged in such transmission of power are the Central Colorado Power Company, the power companies of Niagara Falls, and the Southern Power Company. The first transmits power from Shoshone Falls to Denver, a distance of 180 miles; one of the second group, from Niagara Falls to Syracuse, a distance of about 150 miles; and the third to various points, some of which are 150 miles from the place where the power is generated. In all these cases the transmitted power may be used for driving fixed machinery, for propelling trolley-cars, and for lighting purposes.

same year successful experiments with the flying machine, invented by the Wright brothers, led people to believe that the days of aerial navigation might be near at hand.

ARTHUR E. JAMESON.

A CROWDED STREET IN A TENEMENT DISTRICT.
Copyright, 1902, by Underwood & Underwood, New York.

464. City Populations and Municipal Reform. — Our huge industries must be carried on by large bodies of workmen. The result has been an amazing growth of modern cities; and this massing of people in great centres has brought new problems to the front.

When the Constitution went into effect in 1789 only about three per cent. of the people of the United States lived in cities; now not far from forty per cent. are in cities of 4,000 inhabitants and upward. The immense growth of manufactures and commerce has largely caused this change. The massing of large numbers of people in commercial and manufacturing centres furnishes a difficult political problem. Many of the most ignorant foreign-born voters are found in such centres, and, being without intelligent ideas about our government, they can the more readily be induced to sell their votes. As the strength of republican institutions depends upon the morality and intelligence of the people, the practice of buying and selling votes presents a grave danger. But a wide-spread movement in the interests of better city government is making itself felt more and more every year.

Liberal provision made for public schools.

465. Education.—All our material advantages would be worth little without a moral and intelligent people to make proper use of them. This the United States understands and has therefore been foremost among the nations of the world in educating its citizens. Every State in the Union has its system of public schools, some even providing State universities. As a natural result of such systems the progress of education in the United States has been remarkable.

Interest in higher education.

The nation has also taken much interest in higher education, and the people have reason for pride in the standing of their universities. The value of the property owned by colleges and universities in the United States, including grounds, buildings, and productive farms, amounts to hundreds of millions of dollars. Outside the colleges and universities there are many professional and scientific schools.

ARTHUR E. JAMESON.

NEW STEEL TOWER BRIDGE ACROSS THE EAST RIVER, NEW YORK.

Copyright, 1904, by Underwood & Underwood, New York.

Education of the weak and helpless.

Many special institutions of learning have also been established by gifts and bequests of rich men and women, who have given of their abundance not only for the development of good and strong minds, but also for the training and support of the weak and helpless classes of society, such as the blind, the deaf, the mentally defective. There are in the United States many institutions for those classes that need special help. The nation has made a supreme effort to educate the masses and to improve the condition of the weak and suffering.

In recent years, under the direction of the United States Bureau of Agriculture,[1] much attention has been given to training for life on the farm. There are now more than sixty agricultural colleges established in various parts of the country, and model farms and experiment stations are to be found in every State in the Union. By means of these opportunities the farmer is learning to make the soil yield much larger returns than was possible before science came to his aid. The advance in scientific farming is one of the most hopeful movements of our time.

Special training for the farm.

Another promising movement is that in favor of vocational and trade schools, that is, schools which give special training for modern industry. The belief is growing that our public schools not only should furnish a general training for life but also should help to develop that mechanical power and skill and that industrial knowledge which are so much needed in our complex factory system.

Training for modern industry.

466. **Woman Suffrage.**—Quite as noteworthy is the advance in the higher education of women in the past twenty-five or thirty years. Women now have scholastic advantages formerly limited to men, and have taken their place in many fields of activity once exclusively occupied by men. This has come about, however, not only because of a broader general training, but partly on account of the transfer of many household duties to the mill and factory. As we know, many household supplies which women made by hand in the home a hundred years ago are now made by the use of power machines within factory walls. Women are also doing

Advance in the education of women.

Their larger outlook upon life.

---

[1] In 1862 Congress authorized the establishment of the Bureau of Agriculture and also made provisions for the support of agricultural colleges from proceeds of the sales of public lands.

more than they ever did before in the many forms of public service which make for a finer public spirit and a better civic life.

By reason of these and other facts, many believe that women should have the same voting privileges as men. Wyoming was the first State to vote full suffrage to women. There are now eleven States in which women have in all respects equal voting power with men.

467. Newspapers and Periodicals.—The high average of intelligence in the United States has created a great demand for newspapers and magazines. They have become an immense educational force, giving the people a keener, more intelligent interest in public affairs. But it is well to remember that without the aid of recent inventions the modern daily newspaper would not be possible. The telegraph, the telephone, and the marine cable all aid in gathering the news, while the linotype and the complex printing-press supply the lightning processes of printing. The linotype enables the printer very rapidly to put the news into type by striking the keys of a keyboard as in operat-

The linotype and the complex printing-press.

RALPH WALDO EMERSON.

JOHN GREENLEAF WHITTIER.

ing a typewriter. The most advanced printing-press will print, fold, and count 300,000 eight-page papers in an hour, or more than eighty every second.

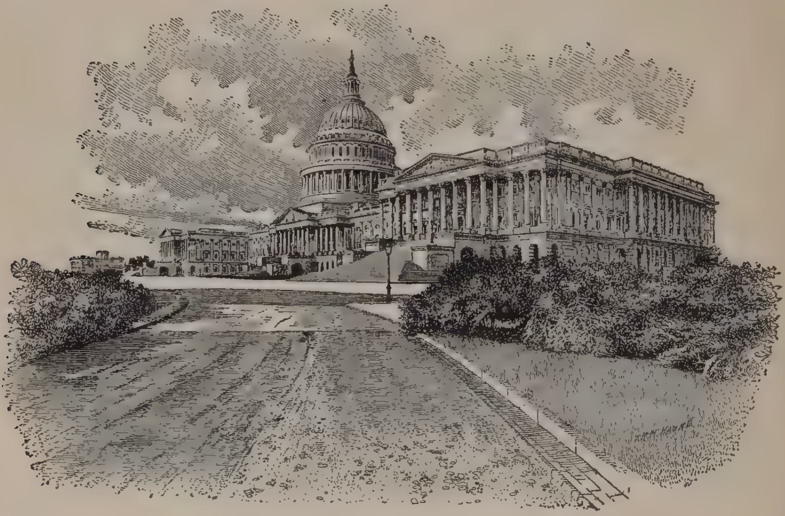
468. Literature.—For a long time after the settlement of the English colonies the people were too busy with the work of clearing the land and building suitable homes to produce any literature. Washington Irving, born the same year that the Revolution was brought to a close, first attracted public attention by his *Knickerbocker History of New York.* He has rightly been called the "Father of American Literature." J. Fenimore Cooper, his contemporary, was the first American novelist. He wrote the first sea story that attracted the attention of the world, and was author of the famous *Leatherstocking Tales*, describing the life of the American

THE LOUISIANA PURCHASE EXPOSITION, ST. LOUIS, 1904. ONE OF THE BRIDGES AND LAGOONS, WITH THE PALACE OF EDUCATION.
Copyright, 1904, by Louisiana Purchase Exposition Co.

Irving, Cooper, and Bryant.

Indian. These stories were written with such freshness and originality that they were eagerly read in many countries. Our first poet to be recognized in England, William Cullen Bryant, belonged to the same period. He came into fame by his well-known poem, *Thanatopsis*, written when he was nineteen.

Among the familiar names of later American literature are the following: poets, Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, John Greenleaf Whittier, Oliver Wendell Holmes, Edgar Allan Poe, Ralph Waldo Emerson, and James Russell Lowell; essayists, Emerson and Lowell; novelists, Nathaniel Hawthorne, W. D. Howells, Henry James, Harriet Beecher Stowe; historians, George Bancroft, John Lothrop Motley, William H. Prescott, and Francis Parkman. Much excellent work has been done by living writers, especially in the department of American history, and this work is coming from all parts of the country.



THE CAPITOL, WASHINGTON, D. C.

Other familiar names in American literature.

469. Problems of the Hour.—The great educational influences coming from the public schools, from higher institutions of learning, from the newspapers and periodicals, and from the reading and study of good literature are preparing the people rightly to solve the problems of the hour. These problems include the race problem in the South, temperance reform, immigration, the tariff, trust regulation, railroad regulation, conservation of our natural resources, vocational education, the form of government of our cities, the money question, civil service reform, woman suffrage, and the strife between labor and capital. The right solution of these difficult problems demands intelligence, patience, and conscientious effort. We must take time to study them, and we must try to look at them from more than one point of view. If we approach them with a broad and generous spirit, with an earnest desire to find out the truth, we shall be more likely to understand them and to take the proper steps to a satisfactory solution.

470. Relation of the Individual Citizen to the State.—But no matter what problems present themselves for solution, the character of the State is determined by the character of its citizens. We should never forget that a vast territory like ours, with all its wealth, is not necessarily great. The greatness of a country is not measured by what it has in land, productions, trades, and educational institutions, but by what its people are. If they are intelligent and patriotic, ready at all times to do their duty in the interest of the public good, their future is assured.

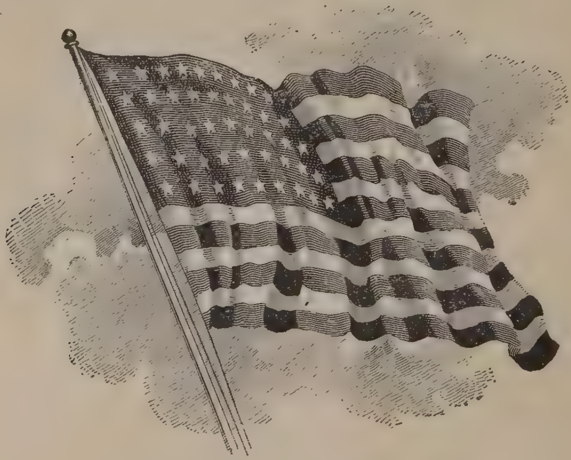
America means opportunity.

You, my young reader, owe much to your country for what it has done for you. It has been said that America means opportunity. It does. It means opportunity to get wealth, power, influence, and honor. It means opportunity to make the most of your powers of body and mind. But, more than all else, it means opportunity to make the institutions of your country better by honest, faithful service, and sincere efforts to know the truth.

Our national flag.

Charles Sumner said of our national flag: "The stripes of alternate red and white proclaim the original union of thirteen States to maintain the Declaration of Independence. Its stars, white on a field of blue, proclaim the union of States constituting our national constellation, which receives a new star with every new State. These two signify union, past and present. The very colors have a language which was officially recognized by our fathers. White is for purity, red for valor, blue for justice."

"I pledge allegiance to my flag and the republic for which it stands, one nation, indivisible, with liberty and justice for all."



TO THE PUPIL

1. Name the natural advantages of the U. S.
2. What is meant by the industrial revolution? Name two inventions that had a large influence on the making of textiles. How did the sewing machine cheapen the cost of clothing?
3. What effect did the use of hard and soft coal have upon the production of iron and steel? How did steel rails cheapen transportation?
4. What was the purpose of the Interstate Commerce Act? What powers were given to the Interstate Commerce Commission by the various rate laws? Why was the Anti-Trust Law passed?

5. Tell what you can of the immense increase of our foreign trade.
6. What is meant by the transmission of power by the use of electricity? Give examples of such transmission.
7. What is meant by municipal reform, and why is it needed?
8. What liberal provision has been made for public schools in this country? What advance has been made in education in recent years?
9. Name four inventions which make the modern daily newspaper possible.
10. What are some of the familiar names in American literature? Name some of the problems of the hour.
11. What is the relation of the individual citizen to the state?
12. Before laying aside the study of this history learn the symbolism, as given by Charles Sumner, of the colors of the "Stars and Stripes," and memorize the "pledge."

CHRONOLOGY

1867. *March* 1, NEBRASKA ADMITTED TO THE UNION.
1868. *July* 28, FOURTEENTH AMENDMENT ADOPTED.
1869. *March* 4, ULYSSES S. GRANT INAUGURATED PRESIDENT.
May 10, FIRST PACIFIC RAILROAD COMPLETED.
1870. *March* 30, FIFTEENTH AMENDMENT RATIFIED.
THE NINTH CENSUS, SHOWING A POPULATION OF 38,558,371.
1871. *January*, ALL STATES AGAIN REPRESENTED IN CONGRESS.
1873. *February*, LAW PASSED DEMONETIZING SILVER.
March 4, ULYSSES S. GRANT INAUGURATED PRESIDENT.
FINANCIAL PANIC.
1876. CENTENNIAL EXPOSITION AT PHILADELPHIA.
FIRST TELEPHONE PATENTED.
August 1, COLORADO ADMITTED TO THE UNION.
1877. *March* 4, RUTHERFORD B. HAYES INAUGURATED PRESIDENT.
July, GREAT RAILROAD STRIKE IN PITTSBURG.
1878. *February*, BLAND-ALLISON SILVER BILL PASSED.
ELECTRIC LIGHT INVENTED.
1879. *January* 1, RESUMPTION OF SPECIE PAYMENTS.
1880. THE TENTH CENSUS, SHOWING A POPULATION OF 50,155,783.
1881. *March* 4, JAMES A. GARFIELD INAUGURATED PRESIDENT.
September 22, CHESTER A. ARTHUR FORMALLY INAUGURATED.
1883. LETTER POSTAGE REDUCED TO TWO CENTS.
1884. *December*, NEW ORLEANS EXPOSITION OPENED.
1885. *March* 4, GROVER CLEVELAND INAUGURATED PRESIDENT.
1887. THE INTERSTATE COMMERCE ACT.
1889. *March* 4, BENJAMIN HARRISON INAUGURATED PRESIDENT.
April 22, OKLAHOMA OPENED TO SETTLERS.
PAN-AMERICAN CONGRESS MET IN WASHINGTON.
November 2, NORTH DAKOTA ADMITTED TO THE UNION.
November 2, SOUTH DAKOTA ADMITTED TO THE UNION.
November 8, MONTANA ADMITTED TO THE UNION.
November 11, WASHINGTON ADMITTED TO THE UNION.
1890. DEPENDENT PENSIONS ACT BECAME A LAW.
July 3, IDAHO ADMITTED TO THE UNION.
July 10, WYOMING ADMITTED TO THE UNION.
MCKINLEY TARIFF BILL BECAME A LAW.
SHERMAN SILVER PURCHASE LAW PASSED.
THE ELEVENTH CENSUS, SHOWING A POPULATION OF 62,622,250.
SHERMAN ANTI-TRUST LAW.
1893. *January* 14, REVOLUTION IN HAWAII.
March 4, GROVER CLEVELAND INAUGURATED PRESIDENT.
May 1, COLUMBIAN WORLD'S FAIR OPENED AT CHICAGO.

1894. *June* 4, PULLMAN BOYCOTT.
August 27, THE WILSON BILL BECAME A LAW.
1895. *December* 17, PRESIDENT CLEVELAND'S VENEZUELA MESSAGE.
1897. *March* 4, WILLIAM MCKINLEY INAUGURATED PRESIDENT.
July 24, DINGLEY TARIFF BILL BECAME A LAW.
1898. *April* 25, CONGRESS DECLARES WAR TO EXIST WITH SPAIN.
May 1, DEWEY'S VICTORY AT MANILA.
July 1, BATTLE OF SANTIAGO.
July 3, CERVERA'S FLEET DESTROYED.
1899. *February* 6, TREATY OF PEACE WITH SPAIN RATIFIED.
1900. THE TWELFTH CENSUS, SHOWING A POPULATION OF 75,568,686.
1901. *March* 4, WILLIAM MCKINLEY INAUGURATED PRESIDENT.
July 1, CIVIL GOVERNMENT ESTABLISHED IN THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.
September 14, THEODORE ROOSEVELT INAUGURATED PRESIDENT.
HAY-PAUNCEFOTE TREATY SIGNED.
1902. *May* 20, NEW CUBAN GOVERNMENT FORMALLY INAUGURATED.
THE ISTHMIAN CANAL ACT.
1903. *January* 18, FIRST WIRELESS MESSAGE SENT ACROSS THE ATLANTIC.
July 4, FIRST MESSAGE SENT BY THE PACIFIC CABLE.
November 3, THE REVOLUTION IN PANAMA.
November 18, THE CANAL TREATY WITH PANAMA SIGNED.
1907. THE SECOND PEACE CONFERENCE HELD AT THE HAGUE.
November 16, OKLAHOMA ADMITTED TO THE UNION.
1908. *May*, MEETING AT WASHINGTON ON THE CONSERVATION OF OUR NATURAL RESOURCES.
1909. *March* 4, WILLIAM H. TAFT INAUGURATED PRESIDENT.
August 5, PAYNE-ALDRICH TARIFF BILL BECOMES A LAW.
1910. THE THIRTEENTH CENSUS, SHOWING A POPULATION OF 91,972,266.
1912. *January* 6, NEW MEXICO ADMITTED TO THE UNION.
February 14, ARIZONA ADMITTED TO THE UNION.
1913. *February* 25, SIXTEENTH AMENDMENT DECLARED IN FORCE.
March 4, WOODROW WILSON INAUGURATED PRESIDENT.
May 31, SEVENTEENTH AMENDMENT DECLARED IN FORCE.
1914. *August* 15, THE OPENING OF THE PANAMA CANAL.

TOPICAL REVIEWS IN AMERICAN HISTORY

(The figures in parentheses refer to pages in the book)

I. DISCOVERERS AND EXPLORERS.

1. European trade with Asia in the fifteenth century (1).
2. Portugal leads in discovering an Eastern route (2).
3. Columbus and his discoveries (3–6).
4. Americus Vespucius and the naming of America (8).
5. Magellan proves America to be a continent (9).
6. Spanish discoverers and explorers (De Leon, Narvaez, De Soto, and Balboa) (13, 14, 18, 19).
7. Voyages and discoveries of the English (Cabot, Drake, Raleigh, and Gosnold) (6, 21, 23, 26).
8. Henry Hudson discovers the Hudson River (63).
9. Cartier discovers the St. Lawrence (87).
10. Champlain explores Lake Champlain (88).
11. Father Marquette and La Salle explore the Mississippi (90).

II. THE SPANISH IN AMERICA.

1. Precious metals the main object of the Spaniards (13).
2. The Spaniards drive the Huguenots out of Florida (15, 16).
3. Advantages of Spain in the New World (16).
4. Reasons for Spanish failure (17).
5. Relations between Spain and England (20, 21).
6. France cedes to Spain all territory between the Mississippi and the Rocky Mountains (102).
7. France regains Louisiana from Spain (219).
8. The purchase of Florida from Spain (239).
9. Spain and the Monroe Doctrine (240).
10. The Spanish-American War (410–417).
11. Spain gives up Cuba and Porto Rico (417, 418).

III. THE FRENCH IN NORTH AMERICA.

1. The Spaniards drive the Huguenots from Florida (15).
2. The work of Champlain (87–89).
3. The French in the Mississippi Valley (89–92).
4. England and France struggle for control in America (93).
5. The last French war and its results (97–103).
6. The French lose control of territory in North America (103).

7. Influence of the French Revolution upon American affairs (207).
8. Citizen Genet defies Washington (208).
9. The "X. Y. Z. Papers" and serious trouble with France (210).
10. France regains Louisiana from Spain and sells it to the United States (219, 220).
11. The attempt of Napoleon III to establish an empire in Mexico (344, 345).

IV. STRUGGLE FOR CONTROL IN WHAT IS NOW THE UNITED STATES.

1. Advantages of Spain in the New World (17).
2. Why Spanish colonization failed in North America (17).
3. England's need of America (25).
4. Success of English colonization in America (28–74).
5. The Dutch in New Netherland (63–66).
6. New Netherland becomes New York; why the Dutch failed in colonizing America (67, 68).
7. The work of Champlain (87–89).
8. The French in the Mississippi Valley (89–92).
9. The French lose control of territory in North America (103).
10. The English colonies declare their independence of England (148–150).
11. The Revolution puts an end to English rule in the thirteen English colonies (183).
12. France cedes to Spain all territory between the Mississippi and the Rocky Mountains (102).
13. France regains Louisiana from Spain (219).
14. The purchase of Florida from Spain (239).
15. The attempt of Napoleon III to establish an empire in Mexico (344, 345).

V. ENGLAND AND THE ENGLISH COLONIES.

1. Sir Walter Raleigh's attempt to colonize America (23–25).
2. The London and Plymouth Companies (28).
3. Virginia.
    - *a.* John Smith and the settlement of Jamestown (29–31).
    - *b.* Dale's Great Reform (32).
    - *c.* The second great reform (33).
    - *d.* The great need of labor; the labor supply (34).
    - *e.* Tobacco establishes rural life (35).
    - *f.* Berkeley and the people; Bacon's Rebellion (36, 37).
4. Maryland.
    - *a.* Lord Baltimore and the Catholics settle Maryland (37).
    - *b.* Lord Baltimore's proprietary rights (38).
    - *c.* Disputes about boundaries and religion (39).
    - *d.* Prosperity of the people (39).

5. **North and South Carolina.**
    - *a.* Charles II and the grant of land (41).
    - *b.* The form of government (41).
    - *c.* Carolina divided into North and South Carolina (41).
    - *d.* The population (41).
6. **Georgia.**
    - *a.* Why Oglethorpe wished to plant a colony (41).
    - *b.* The settlement of Georgia (41).
    - *c.* Georgia becomes a royal colony (41).
7. **England under the Stuarts** (42).
8. **Massachusetts.**
    - *a.* The Pilgrims migrate to America (44).
    - *b.* Voyage and first winter (45).
    - *c.* The covenant, democracy, and the church (46).
    - *d.* Relations with the Indians (46).
    - *e.* The Puritans and the Massachusetts Bay Colony (47).
    - *f.* The New England township (48).
    - *g.* Church and State (49).
9. **Connecticut.**
    - *a.* Massachusetts gets control of the Connecticut Valley (50).
    - *b.* Massachusetts settles the Connecticut Valley (51).
    - *c.* Thomas Hooker and democracy (51).
    - *d.* The Connecticut constitution (52).
10. **Rhode Island.**
    - Religious intolerance in Massachusetts leads to the settlement of Rhode Island (54).
11. **The New England confederacy** (55).
12. **The Quakers in New England** (56).
13. **Trouble with England; loss of the Massachusetts charter** (58).
14. **Andros the Stuart governor in New England** (59).
15. **Industries and trade in New England** (61).
16. **New York.**
    - *a.* Henry Hudson seeks the Northwest Passage (63).
    - *b.* Dutch claims in New Netherland (64).
    - *c.* The patroons (64).
    - *d.* The Dutch win the friendship of the Iroquois Indians and thus secure an extensive territory (65).
    - *e.* New Netherland under Dutch governors (66).
    - *f.* New Netherland becomes New York (67).
    - *g.* New York under English governors (68).
17. **Pennsylvania.**
    - *a.* The Quakers in New England (69).
    - *b.* William Penn and the Quakers settle Pennsylvania (70).
    - *c.* The Quakers live in peace with the Indians (71).
    - *d.* Penn's liberal government (71).
    - *e.* The growth of Pennsylvania (72).

18. **New Jersey.**
    - *a.* The first permanent English settlement (73).
    - *b.* "The Jerseys" and New Jersey (73).
    - *c.* New Jersey becomes a royal province (74).
19. **Delaware.**
    - *a.* The Swedes plant settlements along the Delaware River (74).
    - *b.* The Dutch make New Sweden a part of New Netherland (74).
    - *c.* Delaware becomes a part of Pennsylvania (74).
    - *d.* The people of Delaware allowed a separate assembly (74).

VI. THE INDIANS.

1. **Division into families of the Indians east of the Mississippi (75).**
2. **Character; occupations; wampum; religion (77–79).**
3. **The clan and the tribe; communal living (80).**
4. **The Mound Builders (81, 82).**
5. **Number of Indians; their influence upon the whites (82, 83).**
6. **Relation of the Pilgrims with the Indians (46).**
7. **Early Indian wars (84–86).**
8. **The Iroquois Indians (88, 89).**
9. **The Quakers and the Indians (71).**
10. **The conspiracy of Pontiac (103).**
11. **Burgoyne's Indian allies (158).**
12. **Tecumseh's conspiracy (228).**
13. **War with the Creek Indians (235).**
14. **The Seminole Indians in Florida (239).**
15. **Grant's Indian peace policy and the reservation system (384–386).**

VII. ENGLAND AND THE UNITED STATES.

1. **Jay's fruitless treaty with England (208).**
2. **England claims the right to search American vessels and impress American seamen (225).**
3. **England and France greatly injure American commerce (226).**
4. **The War of 1812 (228–238).**
5. **The Oregon boundary dispute settled by treaty (269–271).**
6. **The Trent affair (309).**
7. **England and King Cotton (311).**
8. **England and the Confederate navy; the "Alabama Claims" settled by arbitration (343).**
9. **The Bering Sea trouble settled by arbitration (400).**
10. **The Anglo-Venezuelan difficulty and the Monroe Doctrine (405).**
11. **The Hay-Pauncefote treaty with England (423).**
12. **The Panama tolls and the Hay-Pauncefote treaty (443).**
13. **Great Britain becomes Greater Britain (432).**

VIII. STEPS LEADING TO THE CONSTITUTION.

1. The New England Confederation (55).
2. Franklin's Plan of Union (121).
3. The Stamp Act Congress (132).
4. Committees of Correspondence (138).
5. The first meeting of the Continental Congress (145).
6. The second meeting of the Continental Congress (145).
7. The Declaration of Independence (148).
8. The adoption of the Articles of Confederation (188).
9. The Annapolis Convention (190).
10. The Constitutional Convention (190).

IX. THE CONSTITUTION (The topical outline may be found on page 479).

X. WESTWARD GROWTH.

1. Importance of the struggle between the backwoodsmen and the Indians (168–170, 183).
2. Settlement of the Mississippi Valley (213–218).
3. The purchase of Louisiana (220).
4. Lewis and Clark's expedition (221).
5. The use of the steamboat on Western waters (223).
6. The National Road (241).
7. The Erie Canal (245).
8. The railroad and the rapid growth of the West (258, 259).
9. Speculation in Western lands (260).
10. Our claims to Oregon (269).
11. The annexation of Texas (274).
12. The Mexican cession (277).
13. California (279–283).
14. Influence of the West in favor of nationalism (293–294).
15. Influence of the public lands on our national growth (373).
16. Westward expansion (374).
17. The Mormons in Utah (376).
18. The Pacific railroads (378).
19. The arid region and the problem of irrigation (380).
20. Forest reservations (381).
21. Oklahoma made a State (397).
22. Arizona and New Mexico admitted into the Union (438)

XI. TERRITORIAL EXPANSION.

1. The United States at the close of the Revolution (183).
2. The purchase of Louisiana (220).
3. The purchase of Florida (239).
4. The annexation of Texas (274).
5. Settlement of conflicting claims to the Oregon country (269–273).

6. The Mexican cession (277).
7. The Gadsden Purchase (278).
8. The purchase of Alaska (384).
9. Hawaii annexed to the United States (401).
10. The Spanish cessions of 1898 (417).

XII. DEVELOPMENT OF MEANS OF TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNICATION.

1. Modes of travel and communication in colonial days (117).
2. The flatboat (217).
3. The trail and the pack-horse (217).
4. Steamboat navigation (222, 223).
5. The National Road (241).
6. The Erie Canal (245).
7. The railroad (257, 258).
8. Ocean steamships (264).
9. The telegraph (267).
10. The Atlantic cable (382).
11. The telephone (389).
12. The Panama Canal (423).
13. The Pacific cable (424).
14. Wireless telegraphy (424).
15. Electricity in modern life (459).
16. The automobile; the flying machine (460).

XIII. SOME USEFUL INVENTIONS.

1. The cotton-gin (204).
2. Friction matches (264).
3. The reaping machine (264, 375).
4. The combined reaper and thresher (375).
5. The steam-driven gang-plow (376).
6. The railroad (257).
7. The telegraph (267).
8. The sewing machine, the spinning machine, and the power loom (453).
9. The Bessemer process of making steel (454).
10. The automobile and the flying machine (460).

XIV. SLAVERY.

1. Slavery in the colonies (34, 35; 111, 112).
2. Slavery in the Constitution—the Three-fifths Compromise, the importation of slaves, and fugitive slaves (190, 481, 484; Amendments, Articles XIII, 491; XIV, 492).
3. The cotton-gin and slavery (204).
4. The Missouri Compromise (244).
5. Slavery and the tariff (253).
6. The Abolitionists (271–273).

7. Texas and the Mexican War (274–277).
8. The Wilmot Proviso (278).
9. The Compromise of 1850 (281–283).
10. The Fugitive Slave Law (284).
11. The Underground Railroad (285).
12. The Kansas-Nebraska Bill (287–289).
13. The Dred Scott Decision (294).
14. John Brown's raid (296).
15. Abraham Lincoln and slavery (299).
16. The Emancipation Proclamation (330).
17. The Thirteenth, the Fourteenth, and the Fifteenth Amendments (351, 359, 360).

XV. STATE RIGHTS, NULLIFICATION, AND SECESSION.

1. The Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions (211).
2. Calhoun and nullification (253).
3. Webster and the Union (254).
4. Jackson's feeling toward nullification (255).
5. South Carolina and State rights (255).
6. The State first in the South (300).
7. The Union first in the North (301).
8. State rights, nullification, and secession swept away by the Civil War (352).

XVI. RECONSTRUCTION AND THE NEW SOUTH.

1. President Johnson's plan of restoring the seceded States (357).
2. The freedmen and Southern legislation (358).
3. The Congressional plan of reconstruction (358).
4. The work of reconstruction complete (359).
5. President Hayes withdraws the troops from the South (365).
6. The New South (367).
7. The Atlanta Exposition (369).
8. The freedmen and education (370).

XVII. THE TARIFF.

1. A tariff laid on foreign trade (203).
2. A tariff for revenue with incidental protection (252).
3. A protective tariff (252).
4. South Carolina objects to a high protective tariff (252).
5. New England manufacturers and the protective tariff (254).
6. The tariff question (404, 405).
7. The "Dingley Tariff" (408, 418, 423).
8. The Payne-Aldrich Tariff (435).
9. Tariff revision in 1913 (442).

XVIII. CURRENCY AND BANKING.

1. Jackson and the United States Bank (256, 257).
2. Pet Banks (257).
3. Wild-Cat Banking (260).
4. The Specie Circular (261).
5. The Independent Treasury (263).
6. Greenbacks during the Civil War (391).
7. The Resumption of Specie Payment (390).
8. Silver Legislation (403).
9. Free Silver and the Tariff (407).

XIX. POLITICAL PARTIES.

1. The Federalists and the Anti-Federalists (191, 209).
2. The Democrats-Republicans (209, 211, 213, 230).
3. The Federalist Party and the War of 1812 (230, 236, 237).
4. The Democrats and the National Republican Party (248).
5. William Lloyd Garrison and the Abolitionists (271–273).
6. The Free Soil Party and the Anti-Nebraska Men (278).
7. The Whig Party (290).
8. The Republican Party (290, 299, 358, 360, 389, 404, 407, 425, 435, 439).
9. The Democratic Party (299, 365, 389, 404, 407, 425, 439).

XX. WARS (The topics bearing upon wars may be found in a convenient form in the "Topical Outline of American History," which is included in the book).

1. Indian wars (84, 85, 103, 228).
2. The first three Intercolonial wars (94).
3. The last French war (94–103).
4. The Revolution (126–183).
5. The War of 1812 (229–238).
6. The Mexican War (275–277).
7. The Civil War (305–352).
8. The Spanish-American War (411–417).

XXI. TREATIES.

1. Treaty of peace between France and England in 1763 (103).
2. Treaty of alliance with France in 1778 (164).
3. Treaty of peace with England in 1783 (183).
4. Jay's treaty with England in 1795 (208).
5. Treaty of peace with Tripoli in 1805 (222).
6. Treaty of peace with England in 1814 (238).
7. Oregon boundary dispute settled by treaty in 1846 (271).
8. The treaty of peace with Mexico in 1848 (277).
9. The treaty of peace with Spain in 1899 (417).
10. The Hay-Pauncefote treaty in 1901 (423).

XXII. THE MONROE DOCTRINE.

1. The principal features of the Monroe Doctrine (240, 241).
2. Maximilian in Mexico (345).
3. The Anglo-Venezuelan difficulty and the Monroe Doctrine (405, 406).
4. The United States and the trouble in Mexico (444).

XXIII. THE UNITED STATES AND EUROPE SINCE 1860.

1. The Trent affair (309).
2. England resents the capture of Mason and Slidell (309).
3. England and King Cotton; the blockade (311).
4. The battle of Gettysburg and recognition of the independence of the South by England and France (326).
5. The sympathy of English working-men with the South (343).
6. England and the Confederate navy; settlement of the "Alabama Claims" (343).
7. Napoleon III and the Confederate navy (344).
8. Trouble with Italy (398).
9. The Bering Sea trouble settled by arbitration (400).
10. The Anglo-Venezuelan difficulty and the Monroe Doctrine (405).
11. The Spanish-American War (411–417).
12. China and the "Open Door" (420).
13. The Hay-Pauncefote treaty (423).
14. President Roosevelt as peacemaker (425).
15. The Second Peace Conference (427).
16. The United States and the Spanish-American War (417, 429).
17. The United States a world-power (429).
18. The growth of foreign trade (458).

XXIV. THE PRESIDENTS (For this outline see Appendix D).

XXV. PRESENT-DAY PROBLEMS.

1. Struggle for popular control of public affairs (439).
2. The tariff (203, 252, 254, 404–405, 407, 408, 418, 423, 425, 435, 439, 442).
3. Conservation of natural resources (433).
4. Railroad rate regulation (455).
5. Trusts and the regulation of trusts (456).
6. Special training for the farm and for modern industry (463).
7. The education of women; woman suffrage (463).
8. Immigration (259, 290, 291, 372–373, 467).
9. Civil service reform (392, 393, 467).
10. Municipal reform (439, 461).
11. The strife between capital and labor (467).

APPENDIX A

THE DECLARATION OF INDEPENDENCE

IN CONGRESS, JULY 4, 1776

THE following preamble and specifications, known as the Declaration of Independence, accompanied the resolution of Richard Henry Lee, which was adopted by Congress on the 2d day of July, 1776. This declaration was agreed to on the 4th, and the transaction is thus recorded in the Journal for that day:

"*Agreeably to the order of the day, the Congress resolved itself into a committee of the whole, to take into their further consideration the Declaration; and, after some time, the president resumed the chair, and Mr. Harrison reported that the committee had agreed to a Declaration, which they desired him to report. The Declaration being read, was agreed to as follows:*"

A DECLARATION BY THE REPRESENTATIVES OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, IN CONGRESS ASSEMBLED.

When, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume, among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature's God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

We hold these truths to be self-evident—that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. That, to secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed; that, whenever any form of government becomes destructive of these ends, it is the right of the people to alter or abolish it, and to institute a new government, laying its foundations on such principles, and organizing its powers in such form, as to them shall seem most likely to effect their safety and happiness. Prudence, indeed, will dictate that governments long established should not be changed for light and transient causes; and, accordingly, all experience hath shown that mankind are more disposed to suffer, while evils are sufferable, than to right themselves by abolishing the forms to which they are accustomed. But when a long train of abuses and usurpations, pursuing invariably the same object, evinces a design to reduce them under absolute despotism, it is their right, it is their duty, to throw off such government, and to provide new guards for their future security. Such has been the patient sufferance of these colonies, and such is now the necessity which constrains them to alter their former systems of government. The history of the present king of Great Britain is a history of repeated injuries and usurpations, all having in direct object the establishment of an absolute tyranny over these States. To prove this, let facts be submitted to a candid world.

1. He has refused his assent to laws the most wholesome and necessary for the public good.

2. He has forbidden his governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended in their operations till his assent should be obtained; and, when so suspended, he has utterly neglected to attend to them.

3. He has refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the Legislature—a right inestimable to them, and formidable to tyrants only.

4. He has called together legislative bodies at places unusual, uncomfortable, and distant from the repository of their public records, for the sole purpose of fatiguing them into compliance with his measures.

5. He has dissolved representative houses repeatedly, for opposing, with manly firmness, his invasions on the rights of the people.

6. He has refused, for a long time after such dissolutions, to cause others to be elected, whereby the legislative powers, incapable of annihilation, have returned to the people at large for their exercise; the State remaining, in the meantime, exposed to all the dangers of invasions from without and convulsions within.

7. He has endeavored to prevent the population of these States; for that purpose obstructing the laws for the naturalization of foreigners; refusing to pass others to encourage their migration hither, and raising the conditions of new appropriations of lands.

8. He has obstructed the administration of justice, by refusing his assent to laws for establishing judiciary powers.

9. He has made judges dependent on his will alone for the tenure on their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries.

10. He has erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers, to harass our people and eat out their substance.

11. He has kept among us in times of peace, standing armies, without the consent of our Legislatures.

12. He has affected to render the military independent of, and superior to, the civil power.

13. He has combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our constitutions, and unacknowledged by our laws; giving his assent to their acts of pretended legislation;

14. For quartering large bodies of armed troops among us;

15. For protecting them, by a mock trial, from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these States;

16. For cutting off our trade with all parts of the world;

17. For imposing taxes on us without our consent;

18. For depriving us, in many cases, of the benefits of a trial by jury;

19. For transporting us beyond seas, to be tried for pretended offenses;

20. For abolishing the free system of English laws in a neighboring province, establishing therein an arbitrary government, and enlarging its boundaries, so as to render it at once an example and fit instrument for introducing the same absolute rule into these colonies;

21. For taking away our charters, abolishing our most valuable laws, and altering, fundamentally, the forms of our governments;

22. For suspending our own Legislatures, and declaring themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever.

23. He has abdicated government here, by declaring us out of his protection, and waging war against us.

24. He has plundered our seas, ravaged our coasts, burned our towns, and destroyed the lives of our people.

25. He is at this time transporting large armies of foreign mercenaries to complete the works of death, desolation and tyranny, already begun with circumstances of cruelty and perfidy scarcely paralleled in the most barbarous ages, and totally unworthy the head of a civilized nation.

26. He has constrained our fellow-citizens, taken captive on the high seas, to bear arms against their country, to become the executioners of their friends and brethren, or to fall themselves by their hands.

27. He has excited domestic insurrection among us, and has endeavored to bring on the inhabitants of our frontiers the merciless Indian savages, whose known rule of warfare is an undistinguished destruction of all ages, sexes, and conditions.

In every stage of these oppressions we have petitioned for redress in the most humble terms; our repeated petitions have been answered only by repeated injury.

A prince whose character is thus marked by every act which may define a tyrant, is unfit to be the ruler of a free people.

Nor have we been wanting in our attentions to our British brethren. We have warned them, from time to time, of attempts by their legislature to extend an unwarrantable jurisdiction over us. We have reminded them of the circumstances of our emigration and settlement here. We have appealed to their native justice and magnanimity, and we have conjured them by the ties of our common kindred to disavow these usurpations, which would inevitably interrupt our connections and correspondence. They, too, have been deaf to the voice of justice and of consanguinity. We must, therefore, acquiesce in the necessity which denounces our separation, and hold them as we hold the rest of mankind—enemies in war; in peace, friends.

We, therefore, the representatives of the United States of America in general Congress assembled, appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of our intentions, do, in the name and by the authority of the good people of these colonies, solemnly publish and declare that these united colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved, and that, as free and independent States, they have full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things which independent States may of right do. And for the support of this Declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of Divine Providence, we mutually pledge to each other our lives, our fortunes, and our sacred honor.

The foregoing declaration was, by order of Congress, engrossed, and signed by the following members:

JOHN HANCOCK.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

Josiah Bartlett,
William Whipple,
Matthew Thornton.

MASSACHUSETTS BAY.

Samuel Adams,
John Adams,
Robert Treat Paine,
Elbridge Gerry.

RHODE ISLAND.

Stephen Hopkins,
William Ellery.

CONNECTICUT.

Roger Sherman,
Samuel Huntington,
William Williams,
Oliver Wolcott.

NEW YORK.

William Floyd,
Philip Livingston,
Francis Lewis,
Lewis Morris.

NEW JERSEY.

Richard Stockton,
John Witherspoon,
Francis Hopkinson,
John Hart,
Abraham Clark.

PENNSYLVANIA.

Robert Morris,
Benjamin Rush,
Benjamin Franklin,
John Morton,
George Clymer,
James Smith,
George Taylor,
James Wilson,
George Ross.

DELAWARE.

Cæsar Rodney,
George Read,
Thomas M'Kean.

MARYLAND.

Samuel Chase,
William Paca,
Thomas Stone,
Charles Carroll of Carrollton.

VIRGINIA.

George Wythe,
Richard Henry Lee,
Thomas Jefferson,
Benjamin Harrison,
Thomas Nelson, Jun.,
Francis Lightfoot Lee,
Carter Braxton.

NORTH CAROLINA.

William Hooper,
Joseph Hewes,
John Penn.

SOUTH CAROLINA.

Edward Rutledge,
Thomas Heyward, Jun.,
Thomas Lynch, Jun.,
Arthur Middleton.

GEORGIA.

Button Gwinnett,
Lyman Hall,
George Walton.

APPENDIX B

A CHART ON THE CONSTITUTION

- Some Steps toward the Constitution.....
  - New England Confederation (1643).
  - Franklin's Plan of Union (1754).
  - Stamp Act Congress (1765).
  - Committees of Correspondence (1772).
  - First Meeting of the Continental Congress (1774).
  - Declaration of Independence (1776).
  - Adoption of Articles of Confederation (1781).
  - Annapolis Convention (1786).
  - Constitutional Convention (1787).

- Legislative Department............
  - House of Representatives............
    - Manner of election.
    - Term of office.
    - Qualifications.
    - Represents the people.
    - Census.
    - Apportionment.
    - Speaker the Presiding Officer.
  - Senate ....
    - Number.
    - Manner of election.
    - Term of office.
    - Represents the States.
    - Qualifications.
    - Sole power to try impeachments.
    - Vice-President the Presiding Officer.

- Executive Department............
  - President...........
    - Term of office.
    - Manner of election.
    - Qualifications.
    - Oath of office.
    - Impeachment.
  - Cabinet ....
    - Manner of appointment.
    - Number.
    - Duties.

- Judicial Department.
  - Judges ....
    - Manner of appointment.
    - Number.
    - Term of office.
  - Courts.............
    - Supreme.
    - Circuit.
    - District.

- Congress.......
  - Time of meeting.
  - Quorum.
  - Adjournment.
  - Journal.
  - How a Bill becomes a Law.

Congress has power—
- To lay taxes.
- To borrow money.
- To regulate commerce.
- To naturalize foreigners.
- To coin money.
- To fix standard of weights and measures.
- To establish post-offices.
- To declare war.
- To raise and support armies.
- To provide and maintain a navy.
- To maintain light-houses.
- To make new States.

- President's Powers..
  - Commander-in-Chief of the army and navy.
  - With the advice and consent of the Senate makes treaties and appoints ....
    - Ambassadors.
    - Ministers.
    - Consuls.
    - Judges.

- President's Duties..
  - Messages to Congress. Special sessions of Congress. Receives Ambassadors. Attends to execution of laws.

CONSTITUTION OF THE UNITED STATES

WE, the People of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defence, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this CONSTITUTION for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I.—Legislative Department.

SECTION I. All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

SECTION II. CLAUSE 1. The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States, and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature.

CLAUSE 2. No person shall be a representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

CLAUSE 3. Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers,[1] which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other persons. The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each State shall have at least one representative; and until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three; Massachusetts, eight; Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, one; Connecticut, five; New York, six; New Jersey, four; Pennsylvania, eight; Delaware, one; Maryland, six; Virginia, ten; North Carolina, five; South Carolina, five; and Georgia, three.

CLAUSE 4. When vacancies happen in the representation from any State, the executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

CLAUSE 5. The House of Representatives shall choose their Speaker and other officers; and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

SECTION III.—CLAUSE 1. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two senators from each State, chosen by the Legislature thereof, for six years; and each senator shall have one vote.

CLAUSE 2. Immediately after they shall be assembled in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year; of the second class, at the expiration of the fourth year; and of the third class, at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen by resignation, or otherwise, during the recess of the Legislature of any State, the executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the Legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies.

CLAUSE 3. No person shall be a senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

CLAUSE 4. The Vice-President of the United States shall be president of the Senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

CLAUSE 5. The Senate shall choose their other officers, and also a president *pro tempore*, in the absence of the Vice-President, or when he shall exercise the office of President of the United States.

CLAUSE 6. The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments. When sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the Chief-Justice shall preside; and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two thirds of the members present.

CLAUSE 7. Judgment in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honor, trust, or profit under the United States; but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgment, and punishment, according to law.

---

[1] Under the census of 1910 one representative is apportioned to every 212,407 people.

SECTION IV.—CLAUSE I. The times, places, and manner of holding elections for senators and representatives shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time, by law, make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing senators.

CLAUSE 2. The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

SECTION V.—CLAUSE I. Each House shall be the judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such manner, and under such penalties, as each house may provide.

CLAUSE 2. Each House may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behavior, and with the concurrence of two thirds, expel a member.

CLAUSE 3. Each House shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may in their judgment require secrecy, and the yeas and nays of the members of either House on any question shall, at the desire of one fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

CLAUSE 4.—Neither house, during the session of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two Houses shall be sitting.

SECTION VI.—CLAUSE I. The senators and representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law and paid out of the treasury of the United States. They shall in all cases, except treason, felony, and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective Houses, and in going to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either House, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

CLAUSE 2. No senator or representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased, during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either House during his continuance in office.

SECTION VII.—CLAUSE I. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments, as on other bills.

CLAUSE 2. Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate, shall, before it become a law, be presented to the President of the United States; if he approve, he shall sign it, but if not, he shall return it, with his objections, to that house in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to reconsider it. If after such reconsideration, two thirds of that house shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other house, by which it shall likewise be reconsidered, and if approved by two thirds of that house, it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each house respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

CLAUSE 3. Every order, resolution, or vote to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him, or being disapproved by him, shall be repassed by two thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

SECTION VIII.—CLAUSE 1. The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises, to pay the debts and provide for the common defence and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

CLAUSE 2. To borrow money on the credit of the United States;

CLAUSE 3. To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes;

CLAUSE 4. To establish an uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States;

CLAUSE 5. To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures;

CLAUSE 6. To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States;

CLAUSE 7. To establish post-offices and post-roads;

CLAUSE 8. To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing, for limited times, to authors and inventors the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries;

CLAUSE 9. To constitute tribunals inferior to the Supreme Court;

CLAUSE 10. To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offences against the law of nations;

CLAUSE 11. To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land and water;

CLAUSE 12. To raise and support armies. but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years;

CLAUSE 13. To provide and maintain a navy;

CLAUSE 14. To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces;

CLAUSE 15. To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections, and repel invasions;

CLAUSE 16. To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress;

CLAUSE 17. To exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may, by cession of particular States, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of the government of the United States, and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the Legislature of the State in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dock-yards, and other needful buildings;—And

CLAUSE 18. To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.

SECTION IX.—CLAUSE 1. The migration or importation of such persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.

CLAUSE 2. The privilege of the writ of habeas corpus shall not be suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

CLAUSE 3. No bill of attainder or *ex post facto* law shall be passed.

CLAUSE 4. No capitation or other direct tax shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration hereinbefore directed to be taken.

CLAUSE 5. No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State.

CLAUSE 6. No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over those of another; nor shall vessels bound to, or from, one State, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

CLAUSE 7. No money shall be drawn from the treasury but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

CLAUSE 8. No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States: And no person holding any office of profit or trust under them, shall, without the consent of the Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title, of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign State.

SECTION X.—CLAUSE 1. No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make any thing but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, *ex post facto* law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

CLAUSE 2. No State shall, without the consent of the Congress, lay any impost or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws; and the net produce of all duties and impost, laid by any State on imports or exports, shall be for the use of the treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and control of the Congress.

CLAUSE 3. No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops, or ships of war, in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another State, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ARTICLE II.—Executive Department.

SECTION I.—CLAUSE 1. The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during a term of four years, and, together with the Vice-President, chosen for the same term, be elected as follows:

CLAUSE 2. Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the Legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of senators and representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress; but no senator or representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector.

CLAUSE 3.[1]

CLAUSE 4. The Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

CLAUSE 5. No person except a natural-born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this Constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years resident within the United States.

CLAUSE 6.—In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice-President, and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the President and Vice-President, declaring what officer shall then act as President; and such officer shall act accordingly until the disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.

CLAUSE 7. The President shall, at stated times, receive for his services a compensation which shall neither be increased nor diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

CLAUSE 8. Before he enter on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation:—"I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution of the United States."

---

[1] This clause is no longer in force. Amendment XII. has superseded it.

SECTION II.—CLAUSE 1. The President shall be commander-in-chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States, when called into the actual service of the United States; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices; and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offences against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

CLAUSE 2. He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two thirds of the senators present concur; and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate shall appoint, ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law; but the Congress may by law vest the appointment of such inferior officers, as they think proper, in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of department.

CLAUSE 3. The President shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

SECTION III.—He shall from time to time give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both Houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

SECTION IV.—The President, Vice-President, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

ARTICLE III.—Judicial Department.

SECTION I.—The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The judges, both of the Supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behavior, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services a compensation which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

SECTION II.—CLAUSE 1.[1] The judicial power shall extend to all cases, in law and equity, arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority;—to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls;—to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction;—to controversies to which the United States shall be a party;—to controversies between two or more States;—between a State and citizens of another State;—between citizens of different States;—between citizens of the same State claiming lands under grants of different States, and between a State or the citizens thereof, and foreign states, citizens, or subjects.

CLAUSE 2. In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, and those in which a State shall be party, the Supreme Court shall have original jurisdiction. In all the other cases before mentioned, the Supreme Court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions and under such regulations as the Congress shall make.

CLAUSE 3. The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury, and such trial shall be held in the State where the said crimes shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

SECTION III.—CLAUSE 1. Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. No person shall be convicted of treason, unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

CLAUSE 2. The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason; but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attainted.

ARTICLE IV.—General Provisions.

SECTION I.—Full faith and credit shall be given in each State to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other State; and the Congress may by general laws prescribe the manner in which such acts, records, and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

SECTION II.—CLAUSE 1. The citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States.

CLAUSE 2. A person charged in any State with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another State, shall, on demand of the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime.

CLAUSE 3. No person held to service or labor in one State, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due.

[1] This clause has been modified by Amendment XI.

SECTION III.—CLAUSE 1. New States may be admitted by the Congress into this Union; but no new State shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the junction of two or more States, or parts of States, without the consent of the Legislatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congress.

CLAUSE 2. The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this Constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

SECTION IV.—The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of Government, and shall protect each of them against invasion, and on application of the Legislature, or of the executive (when the Legislature can not be convened), against domestic violence.

ARTICLE V.—Power of Amendment.

The Congress, whenever two thirds of both houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this Constitution, or, on the application of the Legislatures of two thirds of the several States, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the Legislatures of three fourths of the several States, or by conventions in three fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress; provided that no amendment which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article; and that no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

ARTICLE VI.—Miscellaneous Provisions.

CLAUSE 1. All debts contracted, and engagements entered into, before the adoption of this Constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this Constitution, as under the Confederation.

CLAUSE 2. This Constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof; and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every State shall be bound thereby, any thing in the Constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

CLAUSE 3. The senators and representatives before mentioned, and the members of the several State Legislatures, and all executive and judicial officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by oath or affirmation to support this Constitution; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

ARTICLE VII.—Ratification of the Constitution.

The ratification of the conventions of nine States shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the same.

Done in convention, by the unanimous consent of the States present, the seventeenth day of September, in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred and eighty-seven, and of the independence of the United States of America the twelfth.

In witness whereof we have hereunto subscribed our names.

GEORGE WASHINGTON,
President, and Deputy from Virginia.

CONSENT OF THE STATES PRESENT.[1]

NEW HAMPSHIRE.
John Langdon,
Nicholas Gilman.

MASSACHUSETTS.
Nathaniel Gorham,
Rufus King.

CONNECTICUT.
William Samuel Johnson,
Roger Sherman.

NEW YORK.
Alexander Hamilton.

NEW JERSEY.
William Livingston,
David Brearley,
William Paterson,
Jonathan Dayton.

PENNSYLVANIA.
Benjamin Franklin,
Thomas Mifflin,
Robert Morris,
George Clymer,
Thomas Fitzsimons,
Jared Ingersol,
James Wilson,
Gouverneur Morris.

DELAWARE.
George Read,
Gunning Bedford, Jr.,
John Dickinson,
Richard Bassett,
Jacob Broom.

MARYLAND.
James McHenry,
Daniel of St. Thomas Jenifer,
Daniel Carroll.

VIRGINIA.
John Blair,
James Madison, Jr.

NORTH CAROLINA.
William Blount,
Richard Dobbs Spaight,
Hugh Williamson.

SOUTH CAROLINA.
John Rutledge,
Charles C. Pinckney,
Charles Pinckney,
Pierce Butler.

GEORGIA.
William Few,
Abraham Baldwin.

Attest: WILLIAM JACKSON, *Secretary.*

---

[1] Rhode Island was not represented in the Federal Convention.

AMENDMENTS[1]

To the Constitution of the United States, Ratified according to the Provisions of the Fifth Article of the Foregoing Constitution.

ARTICLE I.—Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for redress of grievances.

ARTICLE II.—A well-regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed.

ARTICLE III.—No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house, without the consent of the owner, nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

ARTICLE IV.—The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

ARTICLE V.—No person shall be held to answer for a capital or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service in time of war and public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offence to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor to be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use without just compensation.

ARTICLE VI.—In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defence.

ARTICLE VII.—In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise re-examined in any court of the United States, than according to the rules of common law.

ARTICLE VIII.—Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

---

[1] Amendments I. to X. were declared in force December 15, 1791.

ARTICLE IX.—The enumeration in the Constitution of certain rights, shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ARTICLE X.—The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

ARTICLE XI.[1]—The judicial power of the United States shall not be construed to extend to any suit in law or equity, commenced or prosecuted against one of the United States by citizens of another State, or by citizens or subjects of any foreign state.

ARTICLE XII.[2]—The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for President and Vice-President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and indistinct ballots the person voted for as Vice-President; and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President, and of all persons voted for as Vice-President, and of the number of votes for each, which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the president of the Senate;—the president of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted;—the person having the greatest number of votes for President, shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have such majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice-President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President. The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice-President, shall be the Vice-President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list, the Senate shall choose the Vice-President; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two thirds of the whole number of senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice-President of the United States.

ARTICLE XIII.[3]—SECTION 1. Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude, except as a punishment for crime, whereof the person shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

---

[1] Declared in force January 8, 1798.

[2] Declared in force September 25, 1804.

[3] Declared in force December 18, 1865.

SECTION 2. Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

ARTICLE XIV.[1]—SECTION 1. All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law, nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

SECTION 2. Representatives shall be appointed among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State excluding Indians not taxed. But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for President and Vice-President of the United States, representatives in Congress, the executive or judicial officers of a State, or the members of the Legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, being twenty-one years of age and citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged except for participation in rebellion or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State.

SECTION 3. No person shall be a senator or representative in Congress, or elector of President or Vice-President, or hold any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any State, who having previously taken an oath as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State Legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, to support the Constitution of the United States, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. But Congress may, by a vote of two thirds of each house, remove such disability.

SECTION 4. The validity of the public debt of the United States, authorized by law, including debts incurred for payment of pension and bounties for services in suppressing insurrection or rebellion, shall not be questioned. But neither the United States nor any State shall assume or pay any debt or obligation incurred in aid of insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or any claim for the loss or emancipation of any slave; but all such debts, obligations, and claims shall be held illegal and void.

SECTION 5. The Congress shall have power to enforce, by appropriate legislation, the provisions of this article.

ARTICLE XV.[2]—SECTION 1. The rights of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States, or by any State, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

SECTION 2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

---

[1] Declared in force July 28, 1898.

[2] Declared in force March 30, 1870.

ARTICLE XVI.[1]—The Congress shall have power to lay and collect taxes on incomes from whatever source derived, without apportionment among the several States, and without regard to any census or enumeration.

ARTICLE XVII.[2]— SECTION 1. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State, elected by the people thereof, for six years; and each Senator shall have one vote. The electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State legislature.

SECTION 2. When vacancies happen in the representation of any State in the Senate, the executive authority of such State shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies: Provided that the legislature of any State may empower the executive thereof to make temporary appointments until the people fill the vacancies by election as the legislature may direct.

SECTION 3. This amendment shall not be so construed as to affect the election or term of any Senator chosen before it becomes valid as part of the Constitution.

---

[1] Declared in force February 25, 1913.

[2] Declared in force May 31, 1913.

TO THE PUPIL

1. What colonies united to form the New England Confederation, and what were its purposes and results? What was Franklin's plan of Union, and why was it not adopted? What did the Stamp Act Congress do? What was the leading object of the Committees of Correspondence?
2. Under what circumstances was the first meeting of the Continental Congress held? What led the colonies to adopt the Declaration of Independence?
3. When did the States adopt the Articles of Confederation? Explain the weakness of the central governing power, Congress, under the Articles of Confederation. Tell what you can about the Annapolis Convention; the Constitutional Convention.
4. Under the Constitution, what are the three departments of our government? Which of them makes the laws? Which sees that they are carried out? Which interprets them and tries cases arising under them?
5. Of what does the legislative department consist? How are members of the House of Representatives elected? For how long? What are their qualifications?
6. How many people does each member of the House represent? What is the unit of representation? How can you find the number of representatives in any State? How many in your own? Why?
7. What do the Senators represent? How are they elected and for what term of office? What are their qualifications?
8. What exclusive functions has the House? the Senate?
9. What are the qualifications of the President? How is he elected? For what term of office is he elected? What is meant by the impeachment of the President?
10. What is the President's Cabinet? How many members had Washington's Cabinet? How many in the Cabinet now? What are the duties of the Cabinet officers?
11. Name the three kinds of national courts. How many judges are there in the Supreme Court? How are they appointed and what is their term of office? Why should we have national courts?
12. Explain the three courses which a bill must take in order to become a law. Name the powers of Congress enumerated in the chart.
13. What military power has the President? How are treaties and important appointments made? What duties of the President are named in the chart?

APPENDIX C

TABLE[1] OF STATES AND TERRITORIES

No.	Name.	Date of Admission.	Area in Square Miles.	Representatives in Congress, 1914	Electoral Votes,[2] 1912
1	Delaware[3]	1787	2,050	1	3
2	Pennsylvania	1787	45,215	36	38
3	New Jersey	1787	7,815	12	14
4	Georgia	1788	59,475	12	14
5	Connecticut	1788	4,990	5	7
6	Massachusetts	1788	8,315	16	18
7	Maryland	1788	12,210	6	8
8	South Carolina	1788	30,570	7	9
9	New Hampshire	1788	9,305	2	4
10	Virginia	1788	42,450	10	12
11	New York	1788	49,170	43	45
12	North Carolina	1789	52,250	10	12
13	Rhode Island	1790	1,250	3	5
14	Vermont	1791	9,565	2	4
15	Kentucky	1792	40.400	11	13
16	Tennessee	1796	42,050	10	12
17	Ohio	1802	41,060	22	24
18	Louisiana	1812	48,720	8	10
19	Indiana	1816	36,350	13	15
20	Mississippi	1817	46,810	8	10
21	Illinois	1818	56,650	27	29
22	Alabama	1819	52,250	10	12
23	Maine	1820	33,040	4	6
24	Missouri	1821	69,415	16	18
25	Arkansas	1836	53,850	7	9
26	Michigan	1837	58,915	13	15
27	Florida	1845	58,680	4	6
28	Texas	1845	265,780	18	20

---

[1] The population, the capital, and the largest city of each State may be found on the map between pages 420 and 421.

[2] In 1912 the total number of representatives in Congress was 435. Add to this number 96 for the number of senators in the Senate, and the result is 531 Electoral votes.

[3] The dates opposite the first thirteen—the "Original Thirteen"—indicate the year when the States ratified the Constitution.

No.	Name.	Date of Admission.	Area in Square Miles.	Representatives in Congress, 1914	Electoral Votes,[1] 1912
29	Iowa	1846	56,025	11	13
30	Wisconsin	1848	56,040	11	13
31	California	1850	158,360	11	13
32	Minnesota	1858	83,365	10	12
33	Oregon	1859	96,030	3	5
34	Kansas	1861	82,080	8	10
35	West Virginia	1863	24,780	6	8
36	Nevada	1864	110,700	1	3
37	Nebraska	1867	77,510	6	8
38	Colorado	1876	103,925	4	6
39	North Dakota	1889	70,795	3	5
40	South Dakota	1889	77,650	3	5
41	Montana	1889	146,080	2	4
42	Washington	1899	69,180	5	7
43	Idaho	1890	84,800	2	4
44	Wyoming	1890	97,890	1	3
45	Utah	1896	84,970	2	4
46	Oklahoma	1907	70,430	8	10
47	New Mexico	1912	122,580	1	3
48	Arizona	1912	113,020	1	3
	Alaska	....	577,390	..	..
	District of Columbia	....	70	..	..
	Hawaii	....	6,740	..	..

---

[1] See note 2 on opposite page.

APPENDIX D

PRESIDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES

President.	State.	By Whom Elected.	Term of Office.
George Washington	Virginia	Whole people.	Two terms; 1789–1797.
John Adams	Massachusetts	Federalists.	One term; 1797–1801.
Thomas Jefferson	Virginia	Dem.-Rep.	Two terms; 1801–1809.
James Madison	Virginia	Dem.-Rep.	Two terms; 1809–1817.
James Monroe	Virginia	Dem.-Rep.	Two terms; 1817–1825.
John Quincy Adams	Massachusetts	Rep.	One term; 1825–1829.
Andrew Jackson	Tennessee	Dem.	Two terms; 1829–1837.
Martin Van Buren	New York	Dem.	One term; 1837–1841.
William Henry Harrison	Ohio	Whigs.	One month; 1841.
John Tyler	Virginia	Whigs.	3 yrs. 11 mos.; 1841–1845.
James Knox Polk	Tennessee	Dem.	One term; 1845–1849.
Zachary Taylor	Louisiana	Whigs	1 yr. 4 mos.; 1849, 1850.
Millard Fillmore	New York	Whigs	2 yrs. 8 mos.; 1850–1853.
Franklin Pierce	New Hampshire.	Dem.	One term; 1853–1857.
James Buchanan	Pennsylvania	Dem.	One term; 1857–1861.
Abraham Lincoln	Illinois	Rep.	One term and 6 wks.; 1861–1865.
Andrew Johnson	Tennessee	Rep.	3 yrs. 10 mos.; 1865–1869.
Ulysses Simpson Grant	Illinois	Rep.	Two terms; 1869–1877.
Rutherford Burchard Hayes.	Ohio	Rep.	One term; 1877–1881.
James Abraham Garfield	Ohio	Rep.	6 mos. 15 days; 1881.
Chester Alan Arthur	New York	Rep.	3 yrs. 5 mos., 15 days; 1881–1885.
Grover Cleveland	New York	Dem	One term; 1885–1889.
Benjamin Harrison	Indiana	Rep.	One term; 1889–1893.
Grover Cleveland	New York	Dem.	One term; 1893–1897.
William McKinley	Ohio	Rep.	One term and 6⅛ mos.; 1897–1901.
Theodore Roosevelt	New York	Rep.	3 yrs. 5⅔ mos. and one term; 1901–1909.
William Howard Taft	Ohio	Rep.	One term; 1909–1913.
Woodrow Wilson	New Jersey	Dem.	Serving.

Hard

INDEX

Abolitionists, 271–273

Acadians, removal of, 99

Adams, John, 149; presidency of, 209–212; sketch and portrait, 209

Adams, J. Q., sketch, 245; portrait, 246; presidency of, 245–248; defends the right of petition, 273

Adams, Samuel, 138–140; 143, 149; portrait, 149

Africa, 2, 432

Agricultural colleges, 463

Agriculture, in Colonial times, 34, 35, 39–41, 106, 111, 113; in the South, 253, 367; in the West, 375–377, 380, 381; experiment stations in, 463; model farms in, 463

Aguinaldo's rebellion, 420

Alabama Claims, 344

Alabama, Confederate cruiser, 344

Alabama, secedes, 302

Alaska, purchase of, 384

Albany (Fort Orange), 64

Albany Plan of Union, 121, 122. *See also* Franklin's Plan of Union

Algeria, 222

Algonquin Indians, 76, 89, 94

Alien and Sedition Laws, 211

Alleghany Mountains, 94, 168, 169

Alleghany River, 96

Allen, Ethan, 145

Allies, 448

Alsace and Lorraine, 431

America, naming of, 8; found to be a continent, 9

Americus Vespucius, 8, 9

Amsterdam, New, 64

Amusement, in Colonial times, 110, 112, 113, 116

Anæsthetics, discovered, 268

Anderson, Major, 305, 306

André (än′drā), John, 178, 179

Andros, Sir Edmund, 59–61, 68

Antietam, battle of, 324

Anti-Federalist Party, 191, 209

Appomattox Court House, Lee surrenders at, 347

Arbitration, 400, 401, 406, 407; court of, 428, 436

Arbitration treaties, general, 436; of United States with Great Britain and France, 436

Arc light, 460

Arid region, 380, 381

Arizona, 438

KEY TO PRONUNCIATION.*

a as in fat.
ā " " fate.
ä " " far.
ã " " fare.
e " " met.

ē as in mete.
ė " " her.
i " " pin.
ī " " pine.
o " " not.

ō as in note.
ö " " move.
ô " " nor.
u " " tub.

ū as in mute.
ü German ü, French **u**.
oi as in oil.
ou " " pound.

A double dot under any vowel indicates the short *u*-sound, as in but.

---

* According to Century Dictionary.

Arkansas, 354
Armada, Spanish, 21
Armistead (är′mis-ted), General, 328
Army, Continental, 145, 147
Arnold, Benedict, 145, 157, 159, 163; his treason, 177–179
Arthur, Chester A., sketch, 392, 393; portrait, 392
Articles of Confederation, 185–188
Ashburton Treaty, 354
Asia, European trade with, 1
Astoria, 269
Atlanta Exposition, 369
Atlantic Cable, 382, 383
Atlantic Fleet, 427
Atlantic Ocean, feared by sailors, 3
Australia, 432
Australian Ballot System, 400
Austro-Hungary, 431
Automobile, 460

BACON'S REBELLION, 37
Bahama Islands, Columbus at, 6
Balboa discovers the Pacific, 18
Baltimore attacked by the British, 234
Baltimore, Lord, 37, 38
Bancroft, George, 466
Bank, United States, 256, 257
Bank notes, 260, 261, 262
Barbary States, war with, 222
Barclay, Captain, defeated by Perry on Lake Erie, 233
Beauregard (bō′re-gärd), General, 305
Bell, A. G., 389
Bennington, battle of, 158, 159
Benton, Thomas H., 255
Bering Sea trouble, 400, 401
Berkeley, Sir William, 36, 37
Bessemer process, 454, 455
Blacklists, 395
Bladensburg, 234
Blaine, James G., 398, 400
Blanco, Governor-General, 411
Bland Silver Bill, 403
Blockade, during War of 1812, 231, 232; during Civil War, 311–314; blockade of Cuban coast, 414; blockade of Vera Cruz, 446; of Great War, 448, 449
Bon Homme Richard (bo-nom′rē-shär′), 173
Boone, Daniel, 169
Border ruffians, 289
"Boston Massacre," 138
Boston, settled, 48; evacuated by the British, 148
Boundaries of the United States in 1783, 183; Northwest, 269–271; Southwest, 277
Bowling Green, 315
Boycott, 395
Braddock, General, his defeat, 98
Bradford, Governor, 46
Bragg, General, 334
Brandywine, battle of the, 162
Breckenridge, John C., 299
Brewster, Elder, 46
Brooklyn Bridge, 394
Brooks, Preston S., assaults Charles Sumner, 289, 290
Brown, General, 233
Brown, John, at Harper's Ferry, 296
Bryan, William J., 407, 418
Bryant, William Cullen, 466
Buchanan (bu-kan′an), James, sketch, 294; portrait, 294; presidency of, 294–304
Buell, General, 316
Buena Vista, battle of, 354
Buffalo, 245, 419
Bull Run, first battle of, 307, 308; second battle of, 323
Bunker Hill, battle of, 146, 147
Burgoyne (ber-goin′), General, his invasion, 157–164; his surrender, 163
Burnside, General, 324
Burr, Aaron, 213; his conspiracy, 223, 224
Butler, General, 317, 331

CABINET, the President's, 200, 395
Cable, Atlantic, 382, 383; Pacific, 424, 425

Cabot, John, seeks the Northwest Passage, 6, 8
Cabot, Sebastian, explores the coast of North America, 8
Cahokia, 169
Calhoun, John C., and nullification, 253, 254; portrait, 253
California seeks admission to the Union, 281; admitted to the Union, 354
Cambridge, 51
Camden, battle of, 175
Canada, 87, 88, 102, 145, 432, 433
Canal, Isthmian, 423; Erie, 245, 246
Canary Islands, Columbus at, 4
Canonicus, 47, 55
Cape Cod, 46
Cape of Good Hope, 2
Cape Verde Islands, Cervera's fleet at, 413
Carolina, North and South, 41
Carpet-bag rule, 360, 361
Carranza, 446
Carteret, 73,
Cartier (kär-tyā′), 87
Carver, John, 46
Catholics, 37, 39
Cavaliers, 36, 112
Cedar Creek, battle of, 339
Centennial Exhibition, 388, 389
Central America, 398
Cervera, Admiral, 413, 414, 417
Chambersburg, 339
Champlain (sham-plān′), 87–89, 123
Champlain, Lake, 88, 97, 123, 151, 157, 234
Chancellorsville, battle of, 325
Charles I., 42, 43–47, 48
Charles II., 42, 43, 58, 59, 70
Charleston, 305
Charlestown, 48, 147
Charter Oak, 60
Charter, 28, 38, 45, 54, 60, 64, 70
Chattanooga, battle of, 335, 336
Cherokee Indians, 75, 385
Chesapeake, *Leopard* fires upon, 225, 226
Chicago, 260
Chickamauga, battle of, 333, 334
Chickasaw Indians, 75, 385
Chili, trouble with, 398
China and the "open door," 420
Chinese immigration, 377, 378
Chippewa (chip′e-wä), battle of, 233, 353
Choctaw Indians, 385
Christian Commission, 350
Church of England, 44
Cities, growth of, 461; government of, 461; commission form of government, 439; populations, 461
Civil rights, of the freedmen, 358
Civil service reform, 392, 393
Civil War, principal steps toward, 301, 302; principal events of, 305–348; results of, 351, 352
Clark, George Rogers, in the Northwest, 169, 170, 183
Clay, Henry, 244, 256
Clermont, 223
Cleveland, Grover, sketch, 393; portrait, 393; 402, 404
Clinton, DeWitt, and Erie Canal, 245
Clinton, General, 163, 166, 175, 176, 178, 182
Coal, 452; use of anthracite, 454
Cold Harbor, battle of, 337
Coligny (ko-lēn′yē), 15, 122
Colleges, 462
Colonies, life in the, at the close of the French and Indian Wars, 105–117; groups of, 105, 118, 119
Colorado, 381
Colored troops in the Civil War, 332
Colombia, Republic of, 423
Columbia River, 269, 270
Columbia University, 114
Columbian Exposition, 402
Columbus, Christopher, his plans, 3; portrait, 3; his difficulties, 4; first voyage of, 4; trials on his first voyage, 5; discovers America, 6; other voyages, 6; last days, 6

Commerce, American, 186, 458, 459
Commission form of government, 439, 440
Committees of Correspondence, 138
Common storehouse, in Virginia, 29, 32
Compass, mariner's, 2
Compromise, Missouri, 244; with South Carolina, 256; of 1850, 283, 284
Concentration, 411
Concord, battle of, 142–145
Confederate States of America, organization of, 302
Confederation, Articles of, 185–188
Congress, Continental, first meeting of, 141; second meeting of, 145; has little power, 167, 168, 185–187
Congress, Acts of, Alien and Sedition Laws, 211; Embargo, 227; National Road, 241, 242; Missouri Compromise, 244; Tariff of 1816, 252; Tariff of 1828, 253; Compromise of 1850, 283, 284; Kansas-Nebraska Bill, 287, 288; Reconstruction, 358, 359; Tenure of Office, 360; Homestead Bill, 374; Civil Service Reform, 393; Presidential Succession, 394, 395; Pension Bill, 397; Bland Silver Bill, 403; Sherman Act, 403; McKinley Bill, 404; Wilson Bill, 405; Dingley Bill, 408; Isthmian Canal Act, 423; Payne-Aldrich Tariff Bill, 435; Postal Savings Banks, 436; Parcel Post, 441; Currency and Banking Law, 442; Tariff of 1913; Income Tax, 442; Interstate Commerce, 455; Federal Trade Commission, 456; Sherman Anti-trust Law, 458
Connecticut, early history of, 50–54; and the Northwest Territory, 188
Conscription, North, 332; South, 333
Conservation of Natural Resources, 433
Constitution captures the *Guerrière*, 231
Constitution of the United States, events leading to, 189; ratified, 190; slavery compromises in, 190; strict and liberal construction of, 200
Constitutional Convention, 190
Continental currency, 168
Conway Cabal, 165, 166
Cooper, James Fenimore, 465
Co-operation among nations, 433
Cornwallis, General, 154, 176, 179–183
Coronado, 122
Cortez conquers Mexico, 18
Cotton export, 311, 367–369
Cotton-gin, invention of, 204, 205
Court of Arbitration, 428
Cowpens, battle of, 179, 180
Creek Indians, 385
Creek Indians, war with, 235
Crève-Cœur (krev-kër′), 91
Crimes and punishments, 109, 115
Cromwell, Oliver, 43
Crown Point, Fort, 101; Americans capture, 145; Burgoyne captures, 157
Cuba, island of, 6, 286, 410
Cuba, Republic of, 421–423
Cuban Reciprocity Act, 423
Cubans rise against Spain, 410
Cumberland destroyed by the *Merrimac*, 313
Cumberland River, 315
Cunard Steamship Line, 264
Cushing, Lieutenant, 328

DAKOTA, NORTH, 375
Dakota, South, 375
Dale, Sir Thomas, 32
Darien, Isthmus of, 18
Daughters of Liberty, 131
Davenport, John, 52
Davis, Jefferson, sketch, 302; portrait, 302; elected President of the Confederacy, 303; flight and capture of, 348
Dawes Act, 386
Dawes, William, 143
Declaration of Independence, 148–150
"Decrees," 226
De Kalb (de kalb), John, 165
Delaware, early history of, 74
Delaware, Lord, 32

Democratic Party, 209, 248, 299, 404, 407, 418
Democratic-Republican Party, 209, 211, 230
Deposits, removal of, 257
De Soto (sō′tō), lands in Florida, 14; discovers the Mississippi, 15; portrait, 16
Detroit, 232
Dewey, Admiral George, 412, 413
Diaz, 2
Dingley Tariff, 408
Dinwiddie, Governor, 96
Discoveries, by Portugal, 2, 8; by the Spaniards, 4–6, 13–15, 18, 19; by the English, 8; by the Dutch, 63; by the French, 87–91
Discovery, aids to, 1
District of Columbia, slavery in, 283
Dorchester Heights, 148
Dorr rebellion in Rhode Island, 354
Douglas, Stephen A., 288, 299
Dover (N. H.), 62
Draft riots, 332
Drake, Sir Francis, 22, 26
Dred Scott decision, 294, 295
Dutch, in New Netherland, 63–68; reasons for their failure, 68
Dutch West India Company, 64

Eads, Captain, and the Mississippi jetties, 366
Early, General, his raid in the Shenandoah, 338
Eaton, Theophilus, 52
Education, 109, 111, 112, 114, 462, 463
El Caney, 416
Electoral Commission, 389, 390
Electoral Count Bill, 390
Electricity, 459
Elizabeth, Queen, 20, 23, 27
Emancipation Proclamation, 330, 331
Embargo, 227
Emerson, Ralph Waldo, 466
Endicott, John, 47
England, her need of America, 25; and the American Revolution, 126–183; impresses American seamen, 225; injures American commerce, 226; and the Civil War, 309–311 and 343–345; and Venezuela, 405–407; friendship of, 407; a colonizing nation, 431, 432
Era of good feeling, 247
Ericsson, John, and the *Monitor*, 313
Ericsson, Leif, 11
Erie Canal, 245
Erie, Lake, battle of, 232, 233
Eutaw Springs, battle of, 192
Expansion, territorial: backwoodsmen in the Revolution, 169–171; purchase of Louisiana, 220; purchase of Florida, 239; annexation of Texas, 274; Mexican Cession and Gadsden Purchase, 277, 278; purchase of Alaska, 384; Hawaii annexed, 401; Spanish cessions in 1899, 417
Exploration, Portuguese, 2; Spanish, 4–6, 9, 13–15, 18, 19; English, 8, 23, 26, 27, 30; Dutch, 63; French, 87–92; Lewis and Clark, 221, 222
Exports, 447, 448, 458, 459
Express companies, 441

Factory System, 453
Fair Oaks (Seven Pines), battle of, 322
Faneuil Hall, 129
Far East, 420
Farragut, Admiral David G., at New Orleans, 317; sketch, 342; at Mobile Bay, 342
Federal Reserve Banks, 443
Federal Reserve Board, 443, 456
Federal Reserve System, 442
Federal Trade Commission, 456
Federalist Party, 191, 198, 209, 211, 230, 237, 238
Fifteenth Amendment, 360
Filibustering Expeditions, 286
Filipinos, rebellion of, 420
Fillmore, Millard, sketch, 281; portrait, 283
Fisheries, in colonial days, 61, 106;

Newfoundland fisheries dispute arbitrated, 436
Five Forks, battle of, 346
Five Nations (see Six Nations), 76
Flag, American, 164, 468
Flatboat, 216
Florida, purchase of, 239; admitted to the Union, 354
Flying machine, 460
Foote, Commodore, 315
Foreign trade, growth of, 458
Forest reservations, 381
Fort Dearborn, 260
Fort Donelson, 315
Fort Du Quesne (dü-kān′), 97, 98, 100
Fort Edward, 158
Fort Henry, 315
Fort le Bœuf, 96
Fort Lee, 152, 153
Fort McHenry, 234
Fort Moultrie (mōl′tri), 150
Fort Necessity, 97
Fort Niagara, 98
Fort Orange (Albany), 64
Fort Stanwix, 159
Fort Sumter, 305, 306
Fort Ticonderoga, 101, 129, 145, 157
Fort Washington, 96
Fort William Henry, 124
Fortress Monroe, 321
Fourteenth Amendment, 360
France, her struggle with England for control of America, 93–103; American treaty with, 164; aids the Americans with her fleets, 172, 181; at war with England, 206; regains Louisiana, 219; injures American commerce, 226
Franco-Prussian War, 431
Franklin, Benjamin, 98; his plan of union, 121; sketch, 121; and the Declaration of Independence, 150; portrait, 162; in France, 164
Franklin Plan of Union, 121, 122
Fredericksburg, battle of, 324
Freedmen, and Southern legislation, 358; and education, 370, 371
French forts, 95
French Revolution, 207
French War, Last, 94–103; causes of, 94; principal events of, 96–102; treaty of peace, 102; other results of, 103
Fugitive Slave Law, 284
Fulton, Robert, 223
Fur trade, 64–66, 91, 113, 114

Gadsden Purchase, 278
Gage, General, 140, 142, 143
Gang-plow, 376
Garfield, James A., portrait, 390; sketch, 392
Garrison, William Lloyd, 271, 272
Gates, General, 163, 175
Genet (zhe-nā), Citizen, defies Washington, 208
George III., 135–140, 183
Georgia, early history, 41; secedes, 302
Georgian Bay, 90
Germantown, battle of, 192
Germany, United, 431, 432
Gettysburg, battle of, 325–329
Gilbert, Sir Humphrey, 23
Gold, discovery of, in California, 279, 280
Gorges, Sir Ferdinando, 62
Gosnold, Bartholomew, 26
Gourges (görg), Dominique de, in Florida, 16
Government, colonial, 118–121
Grant, Ulysses S., at Fort Donelson, 315; at Shiloh, 315, 316; at Vicksburg, 329, 330; at Chattanooga, 334, 335; sketch, 335; portrait, 337; in campaigns about Richmond, 337–348; captures Lee's army, 347, 348; President, 362; his Indian policy, 384, 385
Great Meadows, 97
Great War in Europe, 447–450
Greater America, 429
Greater England, 432
Greater France, 432
Greater Germany, 432

Greater Russia, 432
Greeley, Horace, 348
Greenbacks, 390–392
Greene, General, 179–181
Greenland, 11
Grenville, Lord, 129
Griffin, 90
Griffin's Wharf, 140
Guam, 417
Guantanamo, 415
Guerrière (gār-ryār), captured, 231
Guilford Court House, battle of, 180
Gulf of Mexico, 17
Gunpowder, 1
Guthrie, 397

HAGUE, THE, 427, 428, 436
"Hail Columbia," 210
Hale, Nathan, 152
Half Moon, 63
Halifax, 148
Hamilton, Alexander, favors a strong union, 200; financial policy of, 202; portrait, 202; killed by Burr, 223
Hamilton, Colonel, 169, 170
Hampton Roads, 312–314
Hancock, John, 143, 145, 150
Harper's Ferry, 296
Harrison, Benjamin, 396; sketch, 402; portrait, 402; elected President, 404
Harrison, William Henry, 228; sketch, 267; portrait, 268
Hartford, 51, 54, 60
Hartford, at Mobile Bay, 343
Hartford Convention, 236, 237
Harvard College, 109
Havana, 411
Hawaii (hä-wī'ē), revolution in, 401, 402
Hawthorne, Nathaniel, 466
Hay, Secretary, 421
Hay-Pauncefote treaty, 423
Hayes, Rutherford B., sketch, 365; withdraws troops from the South, 365; portrait, 366; election of, 389, 390
Hayne, Robert Y., 254
Hayti, 6
Hennepin, 123
Henry, Patrick, 131, 141, 191
Henry VII., 8
Hessians, 149, 155
Higher education, 462
Hobson, Lieutenant, 415
Holland at war with England, 167
Holmes, Oliver Wendell, 466
Holy Alliance, 240
Homestead Bill, 374
Hood, General, 341
Hooker, Joseph, 325, 335
Hooker, Thomas, 51–52
Horseshoe Bend, 235
House of Representatives, elects Jefferson as President, 213; impeaches Andrew Johnson, 360; in the Constitution, 486–491
Howe, General, 146, 152, 160–163, 166
Howells, W. D., 466
Hudson, Henry, discovers the Hudson River, 63
Hudson Bay Company, 270
Hudson River, 63, 64, 67, 150, 157
Huerta, General, 444–446
Huguenots (hū̦'ge-nots), in France, 15; their settlements, 16; Spanish destroy settlements of, 16
Hull, Captain Isaac, 231
Hull, General William, 232
Hutchinson, Anne, 55

IBERVILLE (ē-ber-vēl'), 123
Idaho, 375
Illinois, 353
Immigration, foreign, table of, 259; 290, 291, 372, 373
Impeachment, President Johnson's, 360
Imports, 252, 253, 458
Impressment of American seamen, 208, 225
Income tax, 442
Indentured servants, 34
Independence Hall, 150
Independence of the United States, 183
Independent Treasury, 262

Indian Territory, 390, 391
Indiana, 353
Indians, division of, 75; character of, 76; occupations of, 77; their canoes and snow-shoes, 77; wampum, 78; religion, 79; clan and tribe, 80; communal living, 80; number of, 82; influence of, upon the whites, 83; early wars with, 84–86; aid Burgoyne, 158; use of, by the English, 168; reservation system, 386
Incandescent light, 460
Industrial revolution, 452
Initiative, 440
Intercolonial Wars, 94–103
Internal improvements, 246, 247, 261
Interstate Commerce Act, 455
Interstate Commerce Commission, 456
Inventions: gunpowder, mariner's compass, printing-press, 1, 2; cotton-gin, 204; steamboat, 222; reaping machine, 264; friction matches, 264; telegraph, 267; wireless, 424; cable, 382, 424; steam plow, 376; telephone, 389; sewing machine, 453; spinning machine, power loom, 453; Bessemer process of making steel, 454; X-ray, 460; automobile and flying machine, 460
Iowa, 354
Iron, 453–455
"Ironsides, Old," 231
Iroquois (ir-ō-kwoi′) Indians (see Five Nations and Six Nations), 64, 65; and Champlain, 88; enemies of French, 89; and fur trade, 93; and St. Leger, 159
Irrigation, 380, 381
Irving, Washington, 465
Isthmian Canal Act, 423
Italy, trouble with, 398
Italy, United, 430

Jackson, Andrew, at battle of New Orleans, 235, 236; in Florida, 239, 240; presidency of, 250–262; sketch, 250; portrait, 251
Jackson, C. T., 268
Jackson, Thomas J. ("Stonewall"), in the Shenandoah, 322; sketch, 325; and portrait, 327
James I., 30, 42–44
James II., 42, 43, 59
James, Henry, 466
Jamestown, settlement of, 29
Japan, treaty with, 285; new treaty with, 437
Japanese immigration, 438
Jay, his treaty with England, 208
Jefferson, Thomas, 132; writes Declaration of Independence, 150; opposes a strong union, 200; presidency of, 213–227; sketch, 213; portrait, 216
Jesuit missionaries, 90
Johnson, Andrew, presidency of, 356–363; sketch and portrait, 357; his plan of reconstruction, 357, 358; impeached, 360
Johnston, Albert Sidney, 315
Johnston, Joseph E., 307, 322, 329, 337, 340, 348
Joliet (zho-lyā′), 90
Jones, John Paul, 164, 173, 174

Kalb, John, 165
Kansas, struggle for, 287–289; admitted to the Union, 354
Kansas-Nebraska Bill, 287, 288
Kaskaskia, 169
Kearsarge, sinks the *Alabama*, 344
Kenesaw Mountain, battle of, 341
Kentucky, Resolutions presented by, 211; life in, 216
Key, Francis Scott, 234
King George's War, 94
King Philip's War, 85, 86
King William's War, 94
King's Mountain, battle of, 176
Knickerbocker History of New York, 465
Knights of Labor, 395
Knox, Henry, 200
Kosciusko (kos-i-us′kō), 165
Ku-Klux Klan, 361, 362

Labor, in Virginia, 34, 35; in the North and South, 292, 293; railroad strikes, 387, 388; Knights of Labor, 395
La Fayette (lä-fā-yet′), portrait, 160; sketch, 162; in Virginia, 181
La Salle (lä-säl′), explores the Mississippi, 90; his aims and work, 91, 92
Lake Erie, Perry's victory on, 232, 233
Lands: railroad and Western, 258; speculation in Western, 260, 261; public lands and Western expansion, 373–375; arid region and irrigation, 380; forest reservations, 381
Las Guasimas, 415
Latin-American states, 446
Lawrence, Perry's flagship, 232, 233
Leatherstocking Tales, 465
Lee, Charles, 153, 154, 160, 165, 166
Lee, Richard Henry, 149
Lee, Robert E., sketch, 322; in Peninsular campaign, 322; portrait, 324; at Antietam, 324; at Fredericksburg, 324; at Chancellorsville, 325; at Gettysburg, 325–329; in campaigns of 1864 and 1865, 337–347; his surrender, 347
Leisler (līs′lėr), Jacob, leads an uprising against Andros, 69
Lewis and Clark's Expedition, 221, 222
Lexington, battle of, 142–145
Liberator, William Lloyd Garrison's, 271, 272
Lincoln, Abraham, sketch, 299, 300; portrait, 300; presidency of, 305–348; assassinated, 348
Lincoln, General, 175
"Line of Demarcation," 6
Linotype, 464
Literature, 465, 466
London Company, 28, 29
Long Island, battle of, 151, 152
Longfellow, Henry W., 466
Lookout Mountain, battle of, 335
Louis XIV., 91
Louisburg, 94
Louisiana, 353
Louisiana Purchase, 220, 221
Louisiana Purchase Exposition, 425
Lovejoy, Elijah P., 273
Lowell, James Russell, 466
Loyalists, 134, 151
Lumber trade, 61
Lundy's Lane, battle of, 233
Lusitania, 449

McClellan, George B., in the Peninsular campaign, 319–323; at Antietam, 324
McCormick's reaping-machine, 264, 375
McCrea, Jane, 158
McDonough (mak-don′ō), Thomas, on Lake Champlain, 234
McDowell, General, 307, 321
McKinley, William, author of McKinley Bill, 404; portrait, 404; sketch, 408; conduct of Spanish War, 411; assassination of, 418
Madero, 444
Madison, James, portrait, 228; sketch, 228; presidency of, 228–238
Magellan (ma-jel′an), wonderful voyage of, 9
Mails, 198
Maine, 244
Maine, 411
Malolos, 420
Malvern Hill, battle of, 322
Manassas (mạ-nas′as), battle of (*see* Bull Run)
Manhattan Island, 64
Manila, 412, 413, 420
Manufactures, in New England, 61, 227; in the North, 252; in the South, 253, 367, 368
Marion, Francis, 176
Marquette (mär-ket′), Father, 90
Marshall, Chief Justice, 212
Maryland, early history of, 37–40; and the Northwest Territory, 188
Mason, John, 84
Mason and Dixon's Line, 39

Mason and Slidell seized on the *Trent*, 309
Massachusetts Bay Company, 47, 48
Massachusetts, early history of, 44–59
Massasoit (mas-a-soit′), 47
Maximilian, Archduke, in Mexico, 345
Mayflower, Pilgrim vessel, 45
Mayo, Admiral, 445, 446
Meade, George G., portrait, 329; at Gettysburg, 325–329
Mediation, 446
Menendez in Florida, 16
Merrimac, Confederate ironclad, 311–314
Merrimac River, 47
Merrimac, United States collier, 415
Merritt, General, 413
Mexican War, 274–277
Mexico, Cortez conquers, 18; secures independence, 240; troubles with Texas, 274; at war with United States, 275–277; Maximilian in, 345; troubles in, 444–446
Michigan, 354
Middle Colonies, 113–116; mixed population of, 113; occupations of people in, 113; education in, 114; crimes and punishments in, 115; life and manners of the Dutch in, 115
Miles, General, 420
Mills Bill, 404
Mimms, Fort, massacre at, 235
Mining, 279, 280, 452
Minnesota, 354
Minutemen, 143
Missionary Ridge, battle of, 336
Mission stations, 90
Mississippi, 353
Mississippi River, discovered by De Soto, 15; explored by French, 89–92; flatboats on, 217; navigation, 220; in War of 1812, 235; importance of, in Civil War, 314–318; jetties, 366
Mississippi Valley, French in, 89–92; settlement of, 213–222
Missouri, 244
Missouri Compromise, 244, 245
Mobile Bay, battle of, 342, 343
Mohawk River, 89, 157
Money, during Revolution, 167, 168; Shays's Rebellion, 187; Jackson and United States bank, 256; wild-cat banking, 260; in Civil War, 390, 391; resumption of specie payment, 390; silver legislation, 403
Monitor, Union ironclad, 311–314
Monmouth, battle of, 166
Monroe Doctrine, 240, 241, 405, 406
Monroe, James, presidency of, 239–245; sketch, 240; portrait, 241
Montana, 375
Montcalm, General, 99, 102
Montgomery, 145
Monticello, 213
Montreal, 145
Moore's Creek Bridge, battle of, 192
Morgan, Daniel, at battle of Cowpens, 179, 180
Mormons, 376, 377
Morris, Robert, 156
Morristown, 156, 160
Morse, Samuel F. B., and the telegraph, 267, 268
Morton, W. T. G., 268
Motley, John Lothrop, 466
Mound Builders, 81, 82
Mount Vernon, home of Washington, 196
Municipal reform, 461
Murfreesboro, battle of, 324

Napoleon I., 218–220, 229
Napoleon III., and the Confederate navy, 344; and Mexico, 345
Narragansett Indians, 47, 55
Narvaez (när-vä-āth′) explores Florida, 19
Nashville, battle of, 355
National Republican Party, 248
National road, 241, 242
Natural resources, 433, 435
Navigation Laws, 36, 59, 126

Navy, United States, in the Revolution, 172; in War of 1812, 230; our new, 399, 400
Nebraska, 288
Negroes, in Union army, 332; freedmen in reconstruction days, 358–363; progress, 370, 371. *See also* Slavery
Negro suffrage, 360
Nevada, 355
New England, industries and trade of, 61; occupations of the people in, 106; religion and church worship in, 106; education in, 109; crimes and punishments in, 109; life and manners in, 109, 110; and protection, 254
New England Confederacy, 55, 56
Newfoundland, fisheries dispute, arbitration of, 436
New France, the founding of, 87–92; in the Intercolonial Wars, 93–102; given up to England, 102. *See also* Canada
New Hampshire, early history of, 62
New Haven colony, 52
New Jersey, early history of, 73
New Mexico, 438
New Netherland, early history of, 64–68; becomes New York, 68
New Orleans, battle of, 235, 236; capture of, 316, 317; Cotton Centennial, 368, 369
New Sweden, 74
New York, under English governors, 68, 69; and the Northwest Territory, 188
New York City, 246
New Zealand, 432
Newspapers, 117, 263, 464
Niagara Falls, 446
Nina, ship of Columbus, 4
Non-Importation agreements, 133, 139
Non-Intercourse Act, 227
Norfolk Navy Yard, 311
North, economic conditions in, 293; advantages of, 303
North America, mainland discovered, 8; claimed by England, 8
North Carolina, early history of, 41; secedes, 306
North Dakota, 375
North German Confederation, 431
North Sea, 448
Northern point of view, 301
Northmen, 11
Northwest Boundary, 269
Northwest Passage, 8
Northwest Territory, conflicting claims to, 188
Nova Scotia, 8, 11, 99
Nullification, 211, 253–256

OCEAN STEAMSHIPS, 264
Oglethorpe (ō′gl-thôrp), James, 41
Ohio Company, 96
Ohio River, Fort Du Quesne on, 97; flatboats on, 217; value to Westerners, 216, 217; part of boundary lines, 242
Oklahoma (ok-la̤-hō′mä), territory opened to settlement, 396
Old North Church, 143
Old South Church, 130, 139
Olney, Richard, 407
"Open Door," 420
"Orders in Council," 226
Ordinance of 1787, 188, 189
Oregon, 354
Oregon, 414
Oregon Country, 269–271
Ostend (os-tend′) Manifesto, 286, 287
Oswego, 159
Otis, James, 128

PACIFIC CABLE, 424
Pacific Ocean, discovery of, 18
Pacific railroads, 378–380
Pack-horse, 217
Paine, Thos., writes *Common Sense*, 149
Pakenham (pak′en-a̤m), Sir Edward, 236
Palo Alto (pä′lō äl′to), battle of, 354
Palos, 4
Panama Canal, 423, 443, 446, 447
Panama, Isthmus of, 18

Panama, revolution, 423; treaty, 424
Panama tolls, 443
Pan-American Congress, 397
Pan-American Exposition, 419
Pan-American Union, 447
Panic, financial, of '37, 262; of '57, 294; of '73, 386, 387; of '93, 403
Paper money, 168, 187, 390, 391
Parcel post, 441
Parkman, Francis, 466
Parliament, English, 126, 127, 134, 135, 136, 139, 186; Acts of, 186; Sugar Act, 127, 136; Stamp Act, 128–133, 149; Townshend Acts, 136–138; Boston Port Bill, 140, 149, 164; Massachusetts Act, 140
Parties, Federalist, 191, 247; Anti-Federalist, 191; Republican, 209, 299; Democratic-Republican, 209; Democratic, 209, 299; National Republican, 247, 248; Whig, 290; Free Soil, 290; Progressive, 439
Partisan warfare in the South, 176
Patroons in New Netherland, 64, 65
Payne-Aldrich Bill, 435, 436
Peabody, George, 370
Peace Conference, first, 427, 428; second, 427
Peace movement, 427–429
Peking, 421
Pemberton, General, 329, 330
Penn, William, proprietor of Pennsylvania, 70–72; portrait, 70
Pennsylvania, early history of, 70–72
Pennsylvania, University of, 115
Pensacola, 240
Pension Bill, 397
Pepperell, Colonel, 94
Pequot Indians, 84
Periodicals, 464
Perry, Commodore, in Japan, 285, 286
Perry, Oliver H., his victory on Lake Erie, 232, 233
Personal Liberty Bills, 284, 285
"Pet banks," 257
Petersburg, explosion of mine at, 338
Petition, right of, 273
Philadelphia, 71
Philippine Islands, 417, 420
Pickett, General, 328, 329
Pierce, Franklin, portrait, 286; sketch, 286; presidency of, 287–294
Pilgrims, go to Holland, 44; aims and character of, 45; voyage to America, 45; settle at Plymouth, 46; covenant and democracy, 46; relations with the Indians, 46, 47
Pinckney, Charles C., 210
Pinta, ship of Columbus, 4
Pitt, William, 190, 133
Pittsburg Landing, battle of, 315, 316
Pizarro (pi-zä'rō), conquers Peru, 19
Plains of Abraham, 102
Plantation system in early colonial days, 35, 39; in later times, 253, 292
Plymouth colony, 46, 56
Plymouth Company, 28
Pocahontas, 31
Poe, Edgar Allan, 466
Polk, James K., sketch and portrait, 275; presidency of, 275–281
Ponce de Leon (pōn'tha dā lā-ōn'), discovers Florida, 13, 14
Pontiac, his conspiracy, 103
Pope, General, 323
Population, in 1790, 195; table of, 372
Port Bill, Boston, 140
Port Hudson, surrender of, 330
Porto Rico, 417, 418
Portugal leads in discovering an eastern route, 2
Postal savings banks, 436
Postal service, 117, 198
Potomac, Army of, 319
Power loom, 453
Powhatan (pow-ha-tan'), 31
Prescott, Colonel, 146
Prescott, William H., 466
Presidency, change in form of election, 213; the joint high commission, 389, 390; Presidential Succession Act, 394, 395; in the Constitution, 491, 492

Primaries, 439
Princeton, battle of, 156
Princeton College, 115
Printing-press, 464
Prisoners, difficulties about exchange of, in Civil War, 332
Privateering, in Revolution, 172; in War of 1812, 232
Problems of the hour, 467
Progressive Party, 439
Proprietary colonies, 38, 41, 62, 70, 118–120
Protective Tariff, 203, 252–254, 404, 405, 407, 408, 418, 423, 425, 435, 439
Providence, R. I., 55
Provincial Congress, 142
Prussia, 430, 431
Public debt, 260, 261
Public land, 259, 260, 373–375
Public schools, 263, 462
Pullman boycott, 405
Puritans, 47–59; obtain a charter, 47; settlements, 48; government, 49; religious intolerance, 54–58; persecute the Quakers, 56, 57; have trouble with England, 58, 59
Putnam, Israel, 103, 146

Quakers, 56, 57, 69, 70
Quebec, capture of, by Wolfe, 101, 102
Queen Anne's War, 94

Railroads, 257, 258, 367, 378–380
Railroad rate regulation, 455, 456
Raleigh, Sir Walter, portrait, 21; sketch, 22; colonies, 22–25
Rapidan River, 337
Recall, 440
Reconstruction, Johnson's plan of, 357, 358; congressional plan of, 358, 359; work of, complete, 359; difficulties and results of, 363
Referendum, 440
Religion, motive for colonization, 37, 44; Puritan intolerance, 49, 54, 55–57. *See also* Catholics
Religious intolerance among the Massachusetts Puritans, 54–59
Representative assemblies, 33, 38, 39, 49, 50, 118–120, 131, 134
Republican Party, 290, 299, 404, 407, 418
Reservations, Indian, 386
Resumption of specie payments, 390–392
Revere, Paul, 143
Review of the army at Washington, 355
Revolution, American, causes of, 126–141; principal events of, 142–183; results of, 183
Rhode Island, settled, 54, 55; religious toleration in, 55
Rice, cultivation of, 41
Richmond, Va., Confederate capital, 302; evacuated by Lee, 346
Right of search claimed by England, 225
Rio Grande River, 275
Rivers, twofold use of, 217
Roanoke Island, 23–25
Rochambeau, 182
Rolfe, John, marries Pocahontas, 31
Roosevelt, Theodore, portrait, 417; sketch, 419; 424, 425, 426, 439
Rosecrans (rōze-cranz), General, 333, 334
Ross, General, 234
"Rotten boroughs," 134
Rough Riders, 415
Roxbury, settled, 48
Royal colonies, 41, 62, 74, 119
Russia, 432

Sacramento River, 279
St. Augustine, 16
St. Lawrence River, 87
St. Leger (sānt lej′er), in western New York, 159
St. Mary's, settlement at, 38
Salem witchcraft, 108
Sampson, Admiral, 415, 418
San Francisco, 280
San Juan Hill, 416
San Salvador, 6

Sanitary Commission, 350
Santa Maria, ship of Columbus, 4
Santiago, battle of, 416
Savannah, Sherman captures, 341
Savannah, 264
Say-and-Sele, Lord, 52
Saybrook, 54
"Scalawags," 361
Schley, Commodore, 411, 414
Schuyler, General, 158, 163
Schuylkill River, 165
Scott, General, 233
Scrooby, England, 44
Seal fisheries, 400, 401
Secession, of South Carolina, 300; doctrine of, 301; of the remaining Cotton States, 302; of Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Arkansas, 306
Seminole Indians, 239, 240, 385
Semmes (semz), Captain, 344
Senators, United States, elected by the people, 441
Separatists in England, 44
Serapis, 173
Seven Days' battles, 322
Seven Pines, battle of. *See* Fair Oaks
Seven Weeks' War, 431
Seven Years' War, 94
Seventeenth Amendment, 441
Sewing machine, 453
Shafter, General, 416
Shays's Rebellion, 187, 188
Shenandoah Valley, Jackson in, 322; Early in, 338; Sheridan in, 339
Sheridan, Philip H., in the Shenandoah, 339; portrait, 339; at Cedar Creek, 339; sketch, 339; at Five Forks, 346
Sherman Act, 403, 458
Sherman, James S., 435
Sherman, Roger, 150
Sherman, William T., sketch, 340; portrait, 341; captures Atlanta, 341; his "March to the Sea," 341; captures Johnston's army, 348
Shiloh, battle of, 315, 316
Shipbuilding, in the colonies, 61, 106
Short ballot, 439, 440
Silver, Spanish search for, 19; silver legislation, 403
Six Nations. *See* Five Nations and Iroquois Indians
Sixteenth Amendment, 442
Slater, John F., 370
Slater, Samuel, 453
Slavery, in Virginia, 34, 35; cotton-gin and, 204, 205; in the North and the South, 243; and the Civil War, 301
Slidell, seized on the *Trent*, 309
Smith, Captain John, his services to the Virginia colonists, 30; sketch, 31; portrait, 31; returns to England, 31
Smith, Joseph, 377
Smuggling, 127, 128
Solid South, 365
Sons of Liberty, 131
South, economic conditions in, 292, 293; advantages of, 303; seizes national property, 304; condition at the close of the Civil War, 356; the new, 365–371; troops withdrawn from, 365
South America, discovered and explored, 8–10, 18, 19; colonies in revolt from Spain, 240; and the United States, 397, 446, 447
South Carolina, 41; objects to Protection, 252, 253; and State Rights, 255, 256; secedes, 300
South Dakota, 375
South Sea. *See* Pacific Ocean
Southern Colonies, 111–113; occupations of the people of, 111; education in, 111; life and manners in, 112
Southern point of view, 300
Spain claims Florida, 16; advantages of, in the New World, 16, 17; reasons for failure, 17; relations with England, 20, 21; rise of Cubans against, 410
Spaniards, precious metals main object of, 13; and the Indians, 15; destroy Huguenot settlements, 16
Spanish-American War, 410–417

Specie Circular, 261
Specie payments, 390, 391
Speedwell, 45
"Spheres of Influence," 431
Spinning machine, 453
Spoils system, 251
Spottsylvania Court House, battle of, 337
Stage coaches, 117, 197
Stamp Act, 128–131; Stamp Act Congress, 132; repeal of, 133
Standard Oil Company, 457
Standish, Myles, portrait, 48
Stanton, Secretary, 349
Star of the West, 305
Star-Spangled Banner, 234
Stark, John, 159
State Rights, 254–256, 300, 301
Statue of Liberty, 396
Steamboat, Fulton's first, 222; launched on the Ohio River, 223
Steel, 453–455
Stephens, Alexander H., sketch, 303
Steuben, Baron, 165
"Stonewall" Jackson. *See* Jackson, Thomas J.
Stowe, Harriet Beecher, 285
Straits of Magellan, 9
Strikes, railroad, 387, 388, 405
Stuyvesant (stī′ve-sant), Governor, 68
Submarine, 449, 450
Suffrage, for negroes, 359–361
Suffrage, for women, 463, 464
Sugar and Molasses Act, 127
Sugar Trust, 457
Sullivan, General, 152
Sumner, Charles, assault on, 289, 290
Supreme Court, 200, 295, 492, 493
Surplus, 404
Sutter, Captain, 279
Swedes, settlement made by, 74

TAFT, WILLIAM H., sketch of, 435; portrait of, 435; and revision of the tariff, 435; and arbitration, 436, 437
Tampico, 445
Tariff, 203, 252–256, 404, 405, 407, 408, 418, 423, 425, 439, 442
Tariff Commission, 436
Tarleton, 179
Taxation, 39, 43, 130; without representation in America, 134; without representation in England, 134
Taylor, Zachary, 276; portrait, 280; sketch, 281
Tea, tax on, 139, 140
Tecumseh (te-kums′e̤), 228
Telegraph, 267, 268, 379, 424
Telephone, 389
Temperance movement, 264, 265
Tennessee, life in, 216
Tennessee, Confederate ironclad, 342
Tennessee River, 315
Tenure of Office Act, 360
Territories, slavery in, 287, 288, 295, 299
Texas, annexation of, 274; admitted to the Union, 354
Textile industry, 452, 453
Thames River, battle of, 233
Thanatopsis, 466
Thanksgiving Day, 110
Thirteenth Amendment, 358, 360
Thomas, General, 333, 336
Tilden, Samuel J., 389
Tippecanoe, battle of, 228
Tobacco, 33–35, 40
Tories. *See* Loyalists
Township, New England, 48, 49
Trade, Colonial, 126–128
Trade Schools, 463
Travel, modes of, 117, 197, 215, 217, 223, 241, 242, 257
Treaty at close of Last French War, 102; at close of Revolution, 183; Jay's, 208; at close of War of 1812, 238; with Mexico, 277; Hay-Pauncefote, 423; with Japan, 437, 438
Trent Affair, 309
Trenton, battle of, 154, 155
Trolley-cars, 460
Trusts, 456–458
Tuscaroras (tus-ka-rö′räs), 76

Tyler, John, sketch, 267, 268; portrait, 269

"Uncle Tom's Cabin," 285
Underground Railroad, 285
Union, steps toward: New England Confederation, 55, 56; Franklin's Plan of Union, 121, 122; Stamp Act Congress, 132; Committees of Correspondence, 138; first meeting of the Continental Congress, 141; second meeting of the Continental Congress, 145; Declaration of Independence, 148–150; Articles of Confederation, 185–189; Constitutional Convention, 189, 190; results of Civil War, 351, 352; results of Spanish-American War, 417
United States, a world-power, 429, 430
United States, natural advantages of, 451, 452
United States Bank, 256, 257
United States Bureau of Agriculture, 463
United States Steel Company, 457
Universities, 462
University of Pennsylvania, 115
Utah, 375

Valley Forge, suffering at, 164, 165
Van Buren, Martin, sketch and portrait, 262; presidency of, 262, 263
Venezuela (ven-e-zwē-lä′) and England, 405–407
Vera Cruz (ve′rä kröz), 354, 446
Vermont, 352
Verrazano (ver′rät-sä′nō), 87
Vespucius, Americus, 8
Vicksburg, capture of, 329, 330
Victor Emmanuel, 430
Vincennes, 169
Vinland, Northmen visit, 11
Virginia, early history of, 29–37; and the Northwest Territory, 188
Virginia and Kentucky Resolutions, 211
Vocational schools, 463
Vulture, 178

Wabash River, 89
Wallace, Lew, 338
Waltham, 453
Wampanoag Indians, 47
Wampum, 78
War of 1812, causes of, 229, 230; principal events of, 231–236; results of, 238
Wars: Indian, 84–86; Intercolonial, 94; Last French, 94–103; Pontiac's, 103; Revolution, 126–183; Barbary States, 222; Tecumseh's conspiracy, 228; of 1812, 229–238; Creek, 235; Mexican, 275–277; Civil, 301–352; Spanish-American, 410–417
War zone, 448, 449
Warren, Joseph, 143, 146, 147
Washington, D. C., made the national capital, 203; captured by the British, 234
Washington Elm, 144
Washington, George, his journey to the French forts, 96; at Great Meadows, 97; with Braddock, 99; takes command of the American army, 147; in the Revolution, 147–183; presidency of, 194–209; sketch, 195; inaugurated, 195; formality of, 198–200; his cabinet, 200
Washington, Lawrence, 96
Webster, Daniel, and the Union, 254; portrait, 255
Wells, Horace, 268
West, rapid growth of, 259; influence of, in favor of nationalism, 293; expansion of, 374–376
West Point, 177, 178
West Virginia admitted to the Union, 307
Western lands, speculation in, 260
Western migration, 213–224
Wethersfield settled, 51
Weyler, General, 411
Whig Party, 290
Whiskey Rebellion, 203, 204

White Plains, battle o1, 192
Whitney, Eli, invents cotton-gin, 204, 205
Whittier, John Greenleaf, 466
Wild-cat banking, 260
Wilderness, battles of, 337
Wilkes, Captain, 309
Williams, Roger, 54, 55
Williamsburg, 131
Williamsburg, battle of, 321
Wilmot, David, 278
Wilmot Proviso, 278
Wilson Bill, 405
Wilson, Woodrow, sketch, 438; portrait, 438; and the troubles in Mexico, 445
Windsor settled, 51
Winthrop, John, 51
Wireless telegraphy, 424
Wisconsin, 354
Witchcraft, Salem, 108
Wolfe, General, captures Quebec, 101, 102
Woman suffrage, 463, 464
World-powers of Europe, 430
World's Columbian Exposition, 402
Wright Brothers, 461
Writs of Assistance, 128
Wyoming, 464

X-RAY, 460
X. Y. Z. Papers, 209, 210

YALE COLLEGE, 109
Yorktown, McClellan at, 321
Young, Brigham, 377

A HISTORY OF INDIANA

BY

JACOB P. DUNN

SECRETARY INDIANA HISTORICAL SOCIETY

SUPPLEMENT TO
GORDY'S HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES

CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS
NEW YORK CHICAGO BOSTON

COPYRIGHT, 1916, BY
CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS

W.B. CONKEY COMPANY
CHICAGO
THE HAMMOND PRESS

PRINTERS AND BINDERS
HAMMOND, INDIANA

CONTENTS

CHAPTER PAGE

I. THE EARLIEST PERIOD 1

II. THE PERIOD OF ENGLISH DOMINION 11

III. THE TERRITORIAL GOVERNMENTS 21

IV. THE STATE GOVERNMENT 35

V. A CENTURY OF DEVELOPMENT 53

GOVERNORS OF INDIANA 69

COUNTIES AND COUNTY-SEATS OF THE STATE OF INDIANA 70

HISTORY OF INDIANA

CHAPTER I

THE EARLIEST PERIOD

REFERENCES:[1] **Levering's** Historic Indiana; **Dunn's** Indiana; The Mission to the Ouabache, in Indiana Historical Society's publications, vol. III.

OUTSIDE READINGS: **Parkman's** Jesuits in North America, La Salle and the Discovery of the Great West, and Conspiracy of Pontiac.

1. The Mound-Builders.—As Indiana is one of the States of the United States of America, its history is to a large extent only a part of the general history of the nation; but, as with all the other States, it has a local history that is peculiarly its own. One feature of this relates to the different peoples who have inhabited the territory included within its boundaries, although none of these peoples were inhabitants of Indiana only. The first people known to have lived here are called Mound-Builders because, unlike any who followed them, they had a custom of making the great mounds which are commonly known as Indian mounds. Nobody knows whence these people came, nor who they were, nor what became of them; but some of their characteristics can be told from the works they left.

Some of these mounds are very large, and must have required a vast amount of work for their construction, especially as these people had no tools but rude implements of stone, no machinery, no vehicles, and no beasts of burden. No animal of the horse kind was native to this country, or was known here until brought from Europe. Some large mounds were made for tombs for two or three persons, like the pyramids of Egypt; and this proves that they must have had a strongly centralized government, in which one ruler could require the service of his subjects. None of the Indians of America had any such government, except the Toltecs, the Aztecs, the Peruvians, and some of the Pueblos. For this reason some scientists believe that the Mound-Builders were the ancestors of some of these races, and were driven out of this region by another people. Some mounds are evidently fortifications, which proves that the Mound-Builders were looking for attacks from enemies of some kind. There are a number of these in Indiana, indicating at some places a chain of forts. Some of these are of great size, such as "Fort Azatlan" in Sullivan County, the Old Stone Fort in Clark County, and one on the bank of White River, in Randolph County which covers about thirty acres.

---

[1] Every school library in Indiana should be supplied with *Readings in Indiana History* (issued by the State Teachers' Association) and the publications of the Indiana Historical Society.

In addition to the mounds, which are numerous, the stone implements left by the Mound-Builders furnish conclusive evidence that their population was large. About two-thirds of Indiana, in the central and southern parts, when Europeans first knew it, was covered by a dense forest that must have been centuries in growth. In the soil that was beneath this forest there are found everywhere thousands of stone arrow-heads, spear-heads, axes, and other implements of man's make. Only a dense population could have left such remains; and a dense population cannot subsist in a forest country. When the Mound-Builders were here the ground must have been clear, and these peo-

BIG ELEPHANT MOUND.
A remarkable example of the Mound-Builders' work.

ple must have lived chiefly by agriculture. For some unknown reason they disappeared from this region; and the Indians, who appear to have been the next occupants, had no traditions of the Mound-Builders, or of their works; yet many scientists believe the Indians to be descendants of the Mound-Builders.

2. **The Indians.**—When the Americans first came in contact with them, the Miami Indians claimed ownership of all of Indiana except the extreme northern part—including the valleys of the Kankakee and St. Joseph Rivers—which belonged to the Potawatomis. At the treaty of Greenville, in 1795, the Miami head chief, The Little Turtle, told General Wayne that their lands extended as far east as the Muskingum River. But their possession of this territory had not been continuous. The Iroquois, or Six Nations, of New York, obtained firearms from the French, English, and Dutch colonists long before the Western Indians; and, with this advantage of weapons, they exterminated or drove out all the Indian tribes of Ohio and Indiana, about the year 1620. For nearly a century Indiana was practically uninhabited. When the French Jesuit missionaries made their first acquaintance with Green Bay, before 1657, they found the Miamis located far to the west of them—some of them beyond the Mississippi River—and they reported in 1658 that the Iroquois "come to seek them even in these distant lands." This condition continued until after the Western tribes came under French influence and were supplied with firearms.

3. **The Coming of the French.**—The early French explorations of the Great Lakes, and the Western country were not by way of Lake Erie, on account of the hostility of the Iroquois,[1] but by way of the Ottawa River to Lake Huron. There was no exploration to the south until, in 1667, Robert Cavelier, Sieur de La Salle, made some explorations in western New York, and secured more

[1] See par. 81, p. 89.

friendly relations with the Iroquois. In 1669, he pushed farther south, across to the Allegheny, down which he descended to the Ohio, and followed the Ohio almost to its mouth. This was the first known visit of any white man to the soil of Indiana.

La Salle established a trading-post at Cadaracqui, where Kingston, Canada, now stands, and built up a large Indian trade. At the same time he was getting information about the Western country, and about the Mississippi River, which had been discovered by Joliet and Father Marquette in 1673. La Salle had built four small ships on Lake Ontario, which he used in his trade. In 1679 he built another above the Falls of Niagara, and with it sailed through Lake Erie, and on through Lakes Huron and Michigan to Green Bay. Here he left his ship, and went on in canoes to the mouth of the St. Joseph River. This he ascended to the site of South Bend, where he made the short portage to the Kankakee River and descended it to the Illinois, making his second visit to Indiana.

4. The Influence of La Salle.—For the next six years La Salle was the dominant factor in the Western country. He was a man of great resolution and intelligence, with large visions of the future. He had determined to open trade with the Western Indians, and to ship his furs by way of the Mississippi. In January, 1680, he reached the large village of the Illinois Indians near Peoria and, after establishing an alliance with them, began the construction of Fort Crèvecœur, some two miles below Peoria Lake. In a few weeks he was called to Quebec by business troubles, caused by his enemies, and when he returned in the following winter he found Fort Crèvecœur destroyed, and his men and his Indian allies scattered. The Iroquois had been aroused to hostility by his proposal to furnish firearms to their Western enemies, and had taken prompt action to prevent this danger.

But La Salle was not so easily beaten. He at once began forming a confederacy of the Western tribes to resist the Iroquois, and by March, 1683, had completed a new fort, called Fort St. Louis, on an almost inaccessible bluff near Utica, Illinois, known as Starved Rock. About this he gathered the Western Indians in such large numbers as to guarantee safety from the Iroquois. Among these were the tribes that later lived in Indiana. And then a new peril arose. In October, 1682, Count Frontenac, La Salle's firm friend, was succeeded as governor of Canada by La Barre, who was La Salle's enemy, and who made him so much trouble that he was forced to go to France for redress. He was successful; and in 1685 La Barre was recalled, and Governor Denonville took his place. La Salle then started from France with an expedition to found a colony at the mouth of the Mississippi, but failed; and, in 1687, was murdered by one of his own men while attempting to return overland to Canada.

Meanwhile Governor Denonville had organized an expedition against the Iroquois, and in July, 1687, invaded the country of the Senecas with a force of two thousand soldiers, coureurs de bois, and Indians. The Senecas were defeated, and their villages and crops destroyed. Thereafter the Iroquois made no further trouble in the West, except one unsuccessful expedition in 1695. La Salle was the man who had brought about their loss of power.

5. The Return of the Indians.—After the death of La Salle the first strong French leader that appeared in the West was Lamothe Cadillac, an officer in the Indian service, who commanded at Mackinaw and other points. Both the French and the English were claiming the Ohio Valley by right of discovery, and, on July 19, 1701, the English strengthened their claim by taking a deed from the Iroquois for their "bever-hunting lands," which, by the description, included all of Ohio, all of Kentucky north of the Kentucky River, all of Indiana east of a line drawn from the mouth of the Kentucky to Chicago, all of the southern peninsula of Michigan, and all of Canada south of the Ottawa River.[1] Both sides saw that the Detroit River was the key to the upper lakes in this contest, and both proposed to fortify there; but Lamothe Cadillac acted first, and in 1702 built a fort at the site of Detroit. He brought with him a number of the Miamis and other Indiana Indians, who settled about his fort.

The French now had fairly peaceable possession in the West, but there is no record of any movement of the Indians into Indiana until after the siege of Detroit, in 1712, when the Kickapoos and Mascoutins undertook to destroy the French garrison, but were defeated with great slaughter by the French and the other Indians. The Miamis and others then began moving south, and by 1718 had taken locations in which the Americans found them. The most easterly village of the Miamis was at the site of Fort Wayne. On the Wabash they had five principal villages, one at "the Forks of the Wabash," near Huntington; one at Lagro, opposite the mouth of the Salominee; one at the site of Logansport; one opposite Post Ouiatanon, at the mouth of Wea Creek; and one at the Vermillion River. The last named was the village of the Piankeshaws, who were a sub-tribe of the Miamis, speaking the same language. During the French period all of these Indians on the Wabash were usually called Ouiatanons, or sometimes Ouabaches.[2] It should be kept in mind that during the French régime the Ouabache was considered the main stream, *i. e.*, they said that the Ohio emptied into the Ouabache, and the Ouabache into the Mississippi. The Delawares did not come into Indiana until about 1750, when the Miamis granted them lands on the West Fork of White River. Their principal villages were at Muncie, Anderson, and Strawtown, a few miles above Noblesville.

---

[1] The deed is set out in N. Y. Colonial Documents, vol. IV, p. 908. See also vol. VII, p. 572.

[2] There is no "w" in the French alphabet, and the sound is represented by "ou," hence the English form of these words is We-ah-tah-non and Wabash.

6. The Sieurs de Vincennes.—At the time of the return of the Miamis to Indiana the Frenchman who was most influential with them was the Sieur de Vincennes. The Kings of France had thought it wise to establish an inferior order of nobility in Canada, and had granted estates, or fiefs, to a number of influential Canadians. These estates were called seigniories. Among them was the Seigniory of Vincennes, which was granted to François Bissot, in 1672. It is located on the south bank of the St. Lawrence River, just below Quebec, opposite the Isle of Orleans. After the death of François Bissot, his son, Jean Baptiste Bissot became Sieur de Vincennes. He was an officer in the Canadian troops, and in 1705 was stationed with the Miamis, but was recalled on charges of engaging in contraband trade. The charges were, perhaps, unfounded, for in 1712 he was again sent to the Miamis, and remained with them until 1719, when he died at their village at the site of Fort Wayne. It is probable that a small fort was erected by the French while he was there.

No official record has been found in Canada showing who succeeded Jean Baptiste Bissot; but in all records and official correspondence, from 1722 to 1736, there appears a Sieur de Vincennes. According to Judge Law, the historian of Vincennes, he signed his name "Francois Morgan de Vincenne." The early Canadians had little education, and the fact that he misspelled his title makes it certain that he misspelled his name, for Morgan is not a French name. The French name most like it is Margane. It is known that no one named Bissot succeeded; and as Jean Baptiste Bissot had an older sister, Louise Bissot, who married Seraphin Margane in 1668, it is probable that the new Sieur de Vincennes was her son or grandson. He was even more popular with the Miamis than his uncle Bissot, and as early as 1724 was stationed at Post Ouiatanon, which was probably established in 1720.

7. The Influence of Louisiana.—The French possessions in America were divided into the Provinces of Canada and Louisiana. The line between them was not very definite, but it crossed the Wabash about the site of Terre Haute; and therefore all the Indiana Indians were within Canada. Louisiana had little or no influence on Indiana until after 1720; but the French settlements in Illinois, on the Mississippi River, were included in Louisiana. After the power of the Iroquois was broken, the English made alliances with the southern Indians; and the French settlements on the upper Mississippi were endangered by incursions of these tribes down the Tennessee, Cumberland, Kentucky, and Ohio Rivers.

In 1718 Governor Bienville of Louisiana sent M. de Boisbriant up the Mississippi with one hundred men to build a fort for the protection of the upper settlements. He selected a point about sixteen miles above Kaskaskia, and in 1720 completed a substantial stone fortress, which was named Fort Chartres, and which thereafter was the seat of government of all of Louisiana north of the Ohio River. In this same year, 1720, Kaskaskia was made a parish, and Father De Beaubois was stationed there as parish priest. He was a very zealous churchman, and desired to have some of the Indiana Indians brought within the limits of Louisiana, and a mission established for them. The governor of Louisiana also wanted the Indians for the protection of the upper settlements; and, in 1725, Father De Beaubois was sent to France with a party of six Indians to urge this change.

8. The Founding of Post Vincennes.—Father De Beaubois and his Indians were received at the French court with as much ceremony as the English court had shown in the reception of Pocahontas, and the court papers were full of the story of their entertainment. The King granted all that was asked. It was ordered that Sieur de Vincennes should bring part of his Indians to the mouth of the Wabash (they called it the mouth of the Ohio) and establish a post there; and Father D'Outreleau was sent out as "missionary to the Ouabache," on the same ship that brought over the nuns who established the famous Ursuline convent at New Orleans. But the governor of Canada objected to the removal of Sieur de Vincennes, and so the project was delayed until on October 15, 1730, the governor of Canada wrote to the French minister: "The Ouiatanons have been led away into the jurisdiction of Louisiana by the Sieur de Vincennes."

The Indians who accompanied Sieur de Vincennes were a band of Piankeshaws from the Vermillion River; but they were unwilling to go to the mouth of the Wabash, because at that point they would be too much exposed to their southern enemies, especially the Chickasaws, with whom they were then at war. Therefore, the party stopped where the city of Vincennes now stands, and began the post at that point. On March 7, 1733, Sieur de Vincennes wrote to the governor: "You have done me the honor to ask me to send you a statement of the works finished and to be constructed. There is only a fort and two houses in it, and there should at once be built a guard-room, with barracks for lodging the soldiers. It is not possible to remain in this place with so few troops. It will need thirty men with an officer. I am more embarrassed than ever in this place by the war with the Chickasaws, who have come here twice since spring."

The war with the Chickasaws dragged on until 1736, when Governor Bienville of Louisiana determined to invade the Chickasaw country. The upper settlements were called on for aid, and Vincennes with his lieutenant, St. Ange, a few soldiers, and some Indians, joined Commandant D'Artaguiette of Fort Chartres in the expedition down the river Mississippi. They missed the troops from New Orleans, and decided to attack alone, but, on March 25, they fell into an ambush and were defeated with great slaughter. Vincennes and St. Ange fell in the battle. D'Artaguiette and fifteen others were captured and burned at the stake.

9. The French Settlers.—After the death of Sieur de Vincennes, Louis St. Ange, a younger brother of the St. Ange[1] who was killed in the battle with the Chickasaws, was made commandant at Post Vincennes, and remained there from 1736 to 1764, when the country was surrendered to the British. There were only three small settlements of white people in Indiana in the French period. In 1769 there were sixty-six families at Post Vincennes, twelve at Post Ouiatanon, and nine at Fort Miamis—at the site of Fort Wayne. At Post Ouiatanon and Fort Miamis the residents were chiefly engaged in the fur trade. At Vincennes there was more agriculture. The Vincennes people had a large common field, fenced in, in which they kept their cattle. Their chief farm crops were corn and wheat; but they had very good gardens and fruit-trees.

Their farming was rude, but the soil was rich. They used wooden ploughs drawn by oxen, although they had horses. Their only vehicles were two-wheeled carts. They raised tobacco for their own use; and made wine of wild grapes, and cider from the apples they raised. They made their own harness from rawhides. They had no schools until after the Americans took possession. In religion they were Roman Catholics, but there was only one church in Indiana in this period. The church records of Vincennes begin in 1749, with Father Meurin as local priest. Before that time there were occasional visits to the Indiana posts by priests from the Illinois settlements. The French settlers were a simple, kindly people, not very industrious or thrifty from the American standpoint, but honest and good-hearted.

[1] Their family name was Groston, but they were all known by their father's nickname, St. Ange.

CHAPTER II

THE PERIOD OF ENGLISH DOMINION

REFERENCES: **Dillon's** Indiana, chapters 9–11; French Settlements on the Wabash, in Indiana Historical Society's Publications, vol. II; **English's** Conquest of the Northwest; **Dunn's** Indiana.

OUTSIDE READINGS: **Parkman's** Conspiracy of Pontiac; **Thompson's** Alice of Old Vincennes; **Roosevelt's** Winning of the West; **Churchill's** The Crossing.

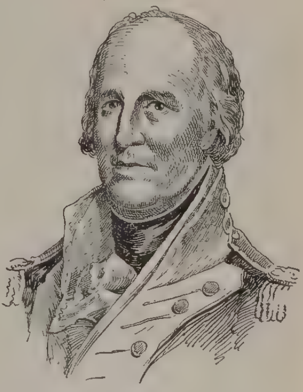
10. The Coming of the English.—The wars between the French and the British in America were all fought far to the east of Indiana, and had little effect on the Indiana settlements except as men went from them to join in the fighting. The last of these wars began in 1754, in the contest for the Ohio Valley; but even this did not directly affect Indiana until after the capture of Montreal in 1760, when Major Robert Rogers was sent to take possession of the posts in western Canada. He took possession of Detroit on November 29, 1760; and soon after sent detachments which took possession of Fort Miamis and Post Ouiatanon; but Post Vincennes, being outside of Canada, was not disturbed until after the treaty of Paris, on February 10, 1763, by which France ceded the portion of the Mississippi Valley east of the Mississippi River to England, and that west of the river to Spain.

11. Pontiac's Conspiracy.—By that time a new obstacle had arisen. Pontiac, an able Ottawa chief, formed a coalition of the Western Indians to drive out the English, and in May, 1763, they captured most of the British posts in the West, including Fort Miamis and Post Ouiatanon. They were unable, however, to capture Detroit or Fort Pitt—where Pittsburg now stands. For a year and a half they harassed the frontiers of the English settlements, but they did not interfere with the French settlements in the Ohio Valley, of which the British had not taken possession. The efforts of the British to reach the Wabash posts were unavailing until 1765, when Colonel George Croghan, who was sent out to attempt to adjust affairs, was taken prisoner by the Indians and carried up the Wabash. At Post Ouiatanon he met Pontiac, who there agreed to make peace with the English, which he did at Detroit, soon after.

12. **British Colonial Policy.**—The British Government at first decided that white people should be kept out of the Indian country, and, in April, 1772, General Gage, commander-in-chief in America, ordered the settlers on the Wabash to remove. The people of Vincennes protested, claiming legal titles to their lands; and General Gage required them to furnish proofs of their titles. Before this question was settled the British Parliament, in 1774, adopted a more liberal policy, granting to all the French settlers full religious liberty and the use of their ancient laws and customs, as well as the right to remain where they were located. Soon after this several large land companies were formed, which undertook to make private purchases of land from the Indians. Among these were the Illinois Land Company and the Wabash Land Company, to which the Indians conveyed large tracts of land in Illinois and Indiana. These titles were all rejected later by the United States Government.

13. **Indian Troubles Begin.**—In 1774 the people on the frontiers of Virginia and Pennsylvania became involved in hostilities with the Indians, and the bad feeling then created resulted in the Indians joining with the British when the Revolutionary War commenced. Their warfare was especially hard on the people who were moving into Kentucky, and who were in continual danger from war-parties. It was learned that the British officers at Detroit and in the Illinois and Wabash settlements

were inciting the Indians to make war on the American frontier settlers, and furnishing them with guns and ammunition. George Rogers Clark, a young Virginian who had taken an active interest in Kentucky, formed the idea of capturing these old French settlements, and later taking Detroit. He submitted his plans to the Virginia authorities, who realized that if this could be accomplished it would be an important advantage in the war with Great Britain, and accordingly authorized Clark's undertaking.



GEORGE ROGERS CLARK.

14. George Rogers Clark's Expedition.—With instructions and letters from Governor Patrick Henry of Virginia, Clark went to Pittsburg in January, 1778, and began recruiting men there, as well as sending officers to Tennessee and Kentucky for the same purpose; it being announced that the troops were being raised for the defence of Kentucky. They were not ready to start down the Ohio River until May, and near the last of that month they reached the Falls of the Ohio. Here they camped on an island known as Corn Island, which has since washed away; and here Clark first told his men of their real destination. This caused some of the men to desert, and some of the expected companies had not arrived; but Clark started on with only 175 men, on June 24, and went down the Ohio to old Fort Massac—an abandoned French post built by Colonel Massac in 1758, on the north side of the Ohio, eight miles below the mouth of the Tennessee.

From this point Clark marched overland to Kaskaskia, which he took by surprise on the evening of July 4, without any resistance. He disarmed all the settlers, who were in much terror, as they had been told that the Americans were very barbarous and cruel. The next day they assembled in the village church, led by their priest, Father Gibault, and humbly petitioned General Clark to spare their lives. He assured them that the Americans were not savages, as they had been told; that France and America had just made a treaty of peace and alliance; that they were free to leave the country if they wished; but that if they desired to remain as Americans they would be protected in their property rights, and have full religious liberty. The French settlers were now filled with joy, and at once took the oath of allegiance and became American citizens. They also sent messengers to the neighboring towns, and their people likewise joined the Americans.

CLARK'S SURPRISE AT KASKASKIA.

15. Occupation of Vincennes.—Clark now turned his attention to Post Vincennes. When St. Ange left Post

Vincennes, in 1764, he made Captain Richardville commandant. He died in 1767, and was succeeded by Lieutenant Chapard, who died in the following year. Ensign Jean Baptiste Racine, commonly known by his nickname, Ste. Marie, then became commandant, and continued until May, 1777, when Lieutenant-Governor Abbott came from Canada and took command. Clark consulted with Father Gibault, and learned from him that Abbott had gone to Canada on business, and that the only troops at Post Vincennes were French militia. Father Gibault volunteered to go to Vincennes and win them over to the American cause; and on July 14, started on his mission, with Doctor Lafonte of Kaskaskia and several others. Two weeks later they returned with the news that the Vincennes people had all taken the oath of allegiance to America. Captain Leonard Helm was sent over to take command of Post Vincennes, and was made Indian agent for the Wabash. A number of Clark's troops now returned home; and the remainder of the year was largely occupied in making treaties with the Indians, many of whom followed their French friends in joining the Americans.

When Lieutenant-Governor Hamilton learned at Detroit of Clark's successes he began preparations to reconquer the region taken. On October 7, 1778, he left Detroit with 177 white troops, and gathered up Indians on the way until he had over 300 of them. He came down the Wabash, reaching Vincennes on December 16; and on the next day, as his French militia had all left him, Captain Helm surrendered the fort. Hamilton sent out parties of Indians to attack the American settlements, and over half of his white troops returned to Detroit, from which place Hamilton expected to receive reinforcements in the spring, when he proposed to march against the Illinois settlements. On January 27, 1779, Colonel Francis Vigo arrived from Vincennes, and informed Clark that Hamilton had only 80 men with him; and Clark decided to attack him at once.

16. The March to Vincennes.—General Clark first prepared a sort of flat-boat, which he called *The Willing*, on which he placed two four-pound cannon and four swivels,[1] and sent it with 40 men down the Mississippi to come up the Ohio to the Wabash. He then gathered, with French recruits, 177 men, and on February 7, started on his march. There was no great difficulty until he reached the Embarras River on the 17th, when they found the Wabash and its tributaries at high water, and all the lowlands flooded. They marched down the Embarras to its mouth, ten miles below Vincennes, and began preparing to cross the Wabash by making dugout canoes. They were now so near Vincennes that they could hear the morning and evening guns of the fort, and great care was needed to prevent discovery. They were almost out of food. On the 20th, they had the good fortune to capture a small boat with five Frenchmen from Vincennes, who told them that their presence was not suspected; and on the same evening one of the hunters brought in a deer, which furnished a welcome meal.

It rained all of the next day, but Clark ferried his men across the Wabash in the little canoes, and started on his hard march through the flooded bottom-lands on the Indiana side. They waded three miles through the chilly waters, and camped on a little hill for the night. On the 22d they went forward again, hungry, wet, and cold; but the unflinching courage of Clark and a few others, especially "a little antic drummer boy," who amused them by his pranks and jokes, served to keep up their spirits. They camped that night on another little hill, and the weather turned colder, making ice half an inch thick at the edge of the water. Their hardest task was now before them, for they had to cross Horse Shoe Plain, four miles wide, of which the floods had made a shallow lake. Clark led the way, breaking the ice; and the canoes helped the weaker men. After a desperate struggle, with much suffering, they got across; and they had the good fortune to capture a canoe, paddled by some Indian squaws, in which was a large piece of buffalo meat, some corn, tallow, and kettles. They built fires and made broth of the captured food, and in a little while they were dry, warm, and in good spirits. There was now only ground between them and the town, and a Frenchman, whom they captured, told them that there was still no suspicion of danger at the fort.

---

[1] A swivel was a small cannon mounted on a pivot, so that it could be pointed in any direction.

17. Capture of the Fort.—By this prisoner Clark sent word to the French people in the town that he was about to attack, and that those who wished to help the British must go into the fort, while others must remain in their houses. At dusk his men moved forward in silence, and at seven o'clock entered the town; part of them were sent to guard against outside relief, and the rest attacked the fort. They had only their rifles, and the British had three cannons and some swivels. At one o'clock the moon set, and in the darkness of the morning Clark made an intrenchment within rifle-shot of the fort. From this his men fired through the port-holes of the fort, killing the gunners, and preventing the use of the cannons. At nine o'clock on the morning of the 24th Clark demanded the surrender of the fort, and Hamilton proposed instead a truce of three days, which Clark at once refused, and resumed firing. About this time six of Hamilton's Indians, who had been captured, were brought in. Clark had them tomahawked and thrown into the river in sight of the fort, to show the Indians that Hamilton could not protect them.

This also terrified some of the men in the fort, and in the afternoon Hamilton sent a flag of truce, and asked a conference. Clark met him in the village church, and after some altercation it was agreed that the seventy-nine men in the fort should surrender as prisoners of war. Twenty-seven of them, including Hamilton, were sent to Virginia, and the rest were released on parole. Immediately after taking the fort Clark sent Captain Helm up the Wabash with 50 men to intercept a large party from Detroit who were bringing supplies to Vincennes. They were completely successful, and the supplies of all kinds that were captured were valued at $50,000. A large part of the spoil was divided among the men, in payment for their services.

18. Closing Years of the Revolution.—From this time forward the Americans held southern Indiana, and settlers rapidly poured into Kentucky. The fighting with the Indians was chiefly north of the Ohio, but with occasional invasions south of the river. In June, 1779, Colonel John Bowman with 300 men attacked an Indian town on the Miami River, but was defeated. In the spring of 1780 Colonel Byrd, of Detroit, invaded Kentucky with a force of soldiers and Indians, and destroyed Martin's and Ruddle's stations. In August, 1780, General Clark marched against the Indians on the Miami River with 1,000 men, and destroyed the Piqua and Chillicothe towns. Later in the year Colonel La Balme, a French officer, who came over with La Fayette, led a force of 60 men on an expedition in which he expected to get possession of Detroit by winning over the French, as Clark had done. They reached Kekionga, at the site of Fort Wayne, captured and plundered the stores there, and fell back to the Aboite River, where they were surprised and destroyed by a force of Indians under The Little Turtle.

In 1781 Clark made preparations for an expedition against Detroit. He was to be joined at the Falls of the Ohio by Colonel Archibald Lochry, with 100 men from Pennsylvania; but as Lochry was coming down the Ohio he fell into an ambush, and his force was destroyed at the mouth of the stream that bears his name.[1] Clark again prepared to attack Detroit in 1782, but was prevented, and instead, destroyed the Indian villages and trading posts on the Miami. In the winter of 1782 the United States and Great Britain agreed on a cessation of hostilities, and there was little trouble on the frontiers for the next three years. A treaty of peace was concluded at Paris on September 3, 1783, by which Great Britain relinquished all the lands south of the centre of the Great Lakes and east of the Mississippi. But at the convention the British delegates insisted that the Americans should leave the lands north of the Ohio for the Indians, and as the American commissioners would not consent, this subject was not mentioned in the treaty. In consequence the British retained their post at Detroit, and incited the Indians to resist the advance of the Americans north of the Ohio. This matter was not finally settled until the treaty of November, 1794, and the defeat of the Indians by General Wayne in the same year. Until that time northern Indiana was actually held by the British and their Indian allies.

---

[1] The dividing line between Ohio and Dearborn Counties, Indiana—commonly written Loughery Creek.

19. Government by Virginia.—But southern Indiana was American, held by Clark and the frontier settlers. In October, 1778, Virginia adopted a law organizing all of the territory northwest of the Ohio River as Illinois County, and authorizing the governor to appoint a "county lieutenant, or commandant-in-chief," who was to be the head of the civil government, with power to appoint militia officers. This law preserved to the French settlers their ancient laws and customs, except that they were to elect such officers as were needed. Governor Henry appointed Colonel John Todd county lieutenant, and he arrived at Kaskaskia in May, 1779.

Soon afterward he called an election of civil officers at Vincennes, the first election ever held in Indiana. The people elected a court of nine members, a clerk, and a sheriff. P. Legras, the first judge of the court, was also appointed lieutenant-colonel of the militia of Vincennes. The French settlers considered him as having the same powers as their former commandants, and he and the court did whatever they considered proper for the next nine years. They assumed the power of making land grants, and exercised it most liberally, making large grants to themselves as well as to others, and making much trouble for innocent purchasers later on.

CHAPTER III

THE TERRITORIAL GOVERNMENTS

REFERENCES: **Dillon's** Indiana; **Dunn's** Indiana; **Smith's** St. Clair Papers; **Webster's** William Henry Harrison's Administration, in Indiana Historical Society's Publications, vol. IV; **Howe's** Laws and Courts of the Northwest and Indiana Territories, in Indiana Historical Society's Publications, vol. II; Executive Journal of Indiana Territory, in Indiana Historical Society's Publications, vol. III.

OUTSIDE READING: Readings in Indiana History (State Teachers' Association); **Dunn's** True Indian Stories; **Dawson's** Life of Harrison.

20. The Ordinance of 1787.—Congress took four years to form a government for the territory northwest of the Ohio River. The chief conflict of opinion was about the disposition of the public lands, and conflicting opinions were not brought into harmony until harmony had been reached as to a Constitution for the United States. Both Congress and the Constitutional Convention sat at Philadelphia, and their members were in close touch with each other. The Ordinance was passed on July 13; and the Constitution was signed by the delegates to the convention on September 27. The Ordinance has been called the constitution of American Territories. In addition to providing the form of government, it had six "articles of compact" which were declared unalterable; the first guaranteeing religious liberty; the second civil liberty; the third education and the protection of the Indians; the fourth securing the rights of the United States and the common use of navigable streams; the fifth providing for not less than three, not more than five, States to be formed from the territory; the sixth prohibiting slavery in the territory.

The Ordinance provided for two stages of government. In the first grade a governor, a secretary, and three judges, appointed by Congress (later by the President), were in control. They acted jointly as a legislature, but were authorized only to adopt laws from the older States, instead of making new ones. Minor officers were appointed by the governor. After the Territory had 5,000 voters, it passed to the second grade, and the people elected representatives to a legislature. These representatives were to select ten names, from which five were chosen by Congress (later by the President), to form a Council, or upper house of the legislature. The Council and House of Representatives, jointly, elected a representative to Congress, who had the privilege of speaking, but not of voting. These provisions continued until 1809, when councillors and representatives in Congress were made elective by the people. Nobody could hold office or vote unless he was a landowner.

21. Government at Vincennes.—On July 19, 1787, Colonel Josiah Harmar arrived at Vincennes, with a small force of soldiers, to take possession, by order of General Clark. He abolished the court, which had been controlling affairs, and appointed Major John F. Hamtramck commandant. Harmar left in October, and, as no civil government was organized, Hamtramck was in supreme control for three years. He was strict, but wise and just, and made a great improvement in local conditions. One of his first acts was to prohibit the sale of intoxicating liquors to the Indians. He also protected the settlers from speculators by prohibiting the sale of lands or goods without his consent. This seems like strange American government in Indiana, but there was no other government within the bounds of Indiana until the summer of 1790, and it was much better than the lack of proper government that had continued at Vincennes for a number of years. There was suffering at Vincennes during these three years, because the crops were destroyed by floods, but Major Hamtramck bought corn at public expense, and fed the people. When he left, in 1790, the people thanked him warmly for his good services.

22. The Northwest Territory.—In connection with the Ordinance of 1787, a sale of nearly 5,000,000 acres of land was made to the Ohio Company, which was composed largely of New England people. In April, 1788, a party of them, led by General Rufus Putnam, began a settlement at Marietta, Ohio, which was made the capital of the vast Northwest Territory, extending from Pennsylvania to the Mississippi, and from the Great Lakes to the Ohio. Governor Arthur St. Clair arrived in July, with Judges Parsons, Varnum, and Symmes. Winthrop Sargent was secretary. On July 27, Governor St. Clair organized Washington County, which included all of Ohio east of the Scioto. No other counties were organized until 1790. On June 20, 1790, Knox County was organized, including all of Indiana and lower Michigan, and the eastern part of Illinois. In 1798 the Northwest Territory advanced to the second grade. The councillor selected for Knox County was Henry Vanderburgh, and the representative Colonel John Small. In the same year William Henry Harrison was made secretary of the Northwest Territory in place of Winthrop Sargent.

WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON.

23. Indian Wars.—In 1785 the Indians held a great council at Post Ouiatanon, and determined to stop the advance of the Americans north of the Ohio River. In 1786 Clark marched against them with 1,500 militia, but when he reached the Vermillion River his men had become so mutinous that he marched back to Vincennes and disbanded them. The next two years were passed in attempts to make treaties, and the Indians did little damage until 1789, when they stole many horses and attacked unprotected settlers. In September, 1790, General Harmàr marched against them and destroyed the towns and crops on the Maumee, and about the site of Fort Wayne; but detachments of his soldiers were defeated by the Indians under The Little Turtle. At the same time Major Hamtramck marched up the Wabash with 400 men, and destroyed the towns on the Vermillion River, but the Indians kept out of his reach. In 1791 the Indians became very active in their hostilities; and in May General Scott marched against them with 750 Kentucky militia. He destroyed the towns about Post Ouiatanon, at the mouth of Eel River, and at the mouth of the Tippecanoe. At the last named place—commonly called Kethtippecanunk—there were found a number of French traders and seventy log houses. Scott returned to Louisville with 58 prisoners, mostly women and children, having killed a number of Indians and destroyed much property without the loss of a man.

In the summer of 1791 Governor St. Clair raised a force to attack the Indians, and in September he started from Fort Washington (Cincinnati) with 2,000 men. They moved north twenty-five miles and built Fort Hamilton, then forty-two miles farther, and built Fort Jefferson. On November 3 they came to the place where Fort Recovery was afterward built, and went into camp. Early the next morning they were attacked by 1,400 Indians, under The Little Turtle, and suffered a terrible defeat. St. Clair lost 913 men, killed and wounded, together with all his artillery, camp equipage, and supplies. This defeat was a terrible blow to the frontiers, for the Indians followed it with attacks on the unprotected settlers everywhere. It was realized that more adequate measures must be taken. Congress provided for raising an army of 5,000 men, and President Washington appointed General Anthony Wayne to command it.

24. **Wayne Defeats the Indians.**—Wayne went to Pittsburg in June, 1792, and began recruiting his army. He took every step with great care, and did not advance toward the Indian country until October, 1793, when he built Fort Greenville, six miles north of Fort Jefferson.

In December he sent out a force which built Fort Recovery on the field of St. Clair's defeat. At these forts he wintered, and remained until July 28, when, having been joined by General Scott with 1,600 mounted men from Kentucky, he marched on the enemy. On August 8 he reached the Maumee at the mouth of the Auglaize, and there erected Fort Defiance. A week later he moved down the Maumee, and on the 20th reached a point called the "Fallen Timbers," where a forest had been blown down by a tornado. Here the Indians were lying in ambush. Wayne attacked and drove them out, pursuing them to Fort Miamis—a post which the British had built on the Maumee. After destroying everything in that vicinity, the army marched up the Maumee, destroying the Indian villages and immense corn fields that lined the stream. On September 14 they marched to Kekionga, destroyed the Indian property there, and built a fort opposite the Indian town. Major Hamtramck, who was left in command, named it Fort Wayne.

FORT WAYNE IN 1795.

The Indians were now thoroughly disheartened, and realized that their British friends could not protect them. After spending the winter in hunger, they obeyed Wayne's orders for them to meet him at Fort Greenville, and make a treaty of peace. Eleven hundred and thirty warriors, representing nine tribes, assembled there, and, on August 3, signed a treaty dictated by Wayne. They surrendered most of Ohio, with tracts of land in Indiana at Fort Wayne, the Little River portage, Post Ouiatanon, and Vincennes, as well as Clark's Grant of 150,000 acres at the Falls of the Ohio, and the southeastern corner of the State, east of the Greenville treaty line, including most of the Whitewater Valley.[1] With peace assured, settlers now came rapidly into the ceded lands, soon forming substantial settlements in the Whitewater Valley and at the Falls of the Ohio, as well as adding to the American population of Vincennes.

25. **Indiana Territory.**—On May 3, 1800, Congress adopted a law dividing Northwest Territory, and making the part of it west of the west line of Ohio Indiana Territory, except that the southeastern corner of Indiana, east of the Greenville treaty line remained a part of Northwest Territory until Ohio became a State in 1802. Vincennes was made the capital of Indiana Territory. William Henry Harrison was appointed governor, John Gibson, secretary, and William Clarke, Henry Vanderburgh, and John Griffin judges. Secretary John Gibson began the government on July 4, 1800, and Governor Harrison and the judges did not arrive until the next year. Indiana Territory included all of the States of Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin, and part of Minnesota, but the entire white population in 1800 was only 5,641. Of this population about 2,500 were in what is now Indiana. There were 929 in Clark's Grant, and most of the remainder were on the Wabash about Vincennes. Of this population 163 were reported free negroes by the

---

[1] The Greenville treaty line is preserved in the west line of Dearborn County. On account of the triangular shape of the tract it was sometimes called The Gore.

census, and 135 slaves, but the slaves were probably the greater number.

The only counties in this vast region that were organized under the Northwest Territory were Knox County, as mentioned, and Randolph and St. Clair Counties, which included the Illinois settlements. On February 3, 1801, Governor Harrison organized Clark County, including Clark's Grant and much more of southern Indiana. In 1803 Michigan was made Wayne County, and the corner of Indiana east of the Greenville treaty line was made Dearborn County. In 1803 the United States purchased Louisiana, and Congress made the northern part of this purchase the District of Louisiana, and ordered the governor and judges of Indiana Territory to make laws for it, although it was not made a part of Indiana. In 1805 the District of Louisiana was made a separate Territory, and so was Michigan. In 1809 Illinois and the region north of it was made a separate Territory, and Indiana Territory was left with practically the same boundaries that the State now has. Indiana Territory advanced to the second grade in 1805, and elected a legislature thereafter. In 1813 the capital was made Corydon, and the seat of government was at that place after May 1 of that year.

26. The Slavery Contest.—Although there were only 135 slaves reported in Indiana by the census of 1800, and probably only about 175 in fact, the question of slavery was the chief cause of political controversy in the Territory. Negro slavery had been admitted to the French settlements by the French kings, and there were a number of Indian slaves, commonly called "panis" (Pawnees) who had been bought from Indians who had captured them. Governor St. Clair held that the French settlers were entitled to hold their slaves, under the treaty provisions guaranteeing them their property and their ancient laws and customs; and this rule was followed in Indiana Territory also. Under the Northwest Territory the Illinois people had petitioned Congress to remove the prohibition of slavery from the Ordinance, but Congress refused. In 1802 Governor Harrison called a convention at Vincennes to consider the question, and the convention petitioned Congress to admit slavery. The chief reason given for asking this was that the country was covered by a heavy forest, and could not be cleared except by slave labor. Meanwhile, settlers were coming into Clark's Grant and the Whitewater Valley who were opposed to slavery, and a number of petitions both for and against slavery were sent to Congress, which steadily refused to change the Ordinance.

HARRISON MANSION, VINCENNES.

The governor and judges, in 1803, and the Territorial Legislature, in 1805, passed what were called indenture laws, under which a man could bring his slaves into the Territory, and they could bind themselves as "servants" for a term of years, which was practically the same as slavery. This only increased the opposition of the free-soil people. In 1808 the Territorial Legislature reported against slavery; and in 1809, after Illinois had been made a separate Territory, Jonathan Jennings became a candidate for Congress as an opponent of slavery and was elected. From that time forward the antislavery people were in the majority in Indiana Territory, and when the State was admitted they controlled the constitutional convention, and made it a free State. They also elected Jonathan Jennings its first governor.

TECUMTHA.

27. Indian Treaties and Tecumtha.—In accordance with instructions from Washington, Governor Harrison proceeded to acquire titles to unoccupied Indian lands as rapidly as convenient. Most of these treaties were made with a few chiefs, who were treated as representatives of their tribes. In 1809 two important cessions of Indian lands were made. One was of the southwestern part of Indiana, lying south of a line drawn southeasterly from the mouth of Big Raccoon Creek to White River, and commonly known as "the ten-o'clock line." The other was a tract twelve miles wide along the west side of the Greenville treaty line, and was commonly known as "the twelve-mile purchase." These cessions brought to a climax the troubles with the Indians, led by the Shawnee chief Tecumtha, who objected to the sale of Indian lands to the whites.

By the treaty of Fort Greenville, the Ohio Indians, who were chiefly Shawnees and Delawares, were thrown back into Indiana, but without having any lands assigned to them. They adopted the theory that all of the lands in Indiana belonged to all of the Indians in common, and could not be sold by any one tribe, even if it had formerly occupied the lands sold. The United States did not accept this theory. In 1801 the Moravians established a mission to the Delaware Indians on White River, about two miles east of the City of Anderson. The non-treaty Indians were followers of the Shawnee Prophet, Laluetseeka, the brother of Tecumtha. To punish the Indians who were friendly to the whites, and who favored land sales, they began accusing such Indians of witchcraft; and in 1806 killed three Indians who were so accused, two of whom were Moravian converts. This caused the abandonment of the mission.

28. Battle of Tippecanoe.—In 1808 the Prophet and his followers removed to the mouth of the Tippecanoe River, where they were joined by many others, of different tribes. Some of these Indians committed depredations on white settlers; and Tecumtha openly declared that the lines for the treaties of 1809 should not be surveyed. In 1811 Governor Harrison and the national authorities decided that the Prophet's town must be broken up. In September, 1811, Governor Harrison led the forces he had assembled to a point two miles above Terre Haute, where he built Fort Harrison. On October 28, having been joined by additional troops, bringing his forces to over 1,000 men, of whom about one-fourth were mounted, he moved on up the Wabash. On November 6, they came in sight of the Prophet's town; and after a parley with the Indians it was agreed that they should go into camp overnight at what is now known as the Battle Ground, and that a conference should be held on the next day.

Tecumtha was not there. He had told the Prophet not to risk a battle in his absence, but some of the chiefs insisted on it, and the Prophet told the Indians that he could protect them from the bullets of the white men. At four o'clock in the morning they attempted to surprise the camp, but preparation had been made for this, and a hot fight ensued. Soon after daybreak the Indians were driven off, with heavy loss; but they had fought desperately, and had killed 37 whites and wounded 151, of whom 25 died later. The reputation of the Prophet was destroyed, and the strength of Tecumtha was broken.

29. The War of 1812.—In May, 1812, when reports of coming trouble between the United States and Great Britain had reached the Indians, a great council was held on the Mississinewa River, and most of the Indians declared for peace with the United States. There were some attacks on white settlers, however, chiefly by Potawatomis, Kickapoos, and Winnebagos. On April 16 Governor Harrison gave orders for putting the militia in preparation for hostilities, and for building blockhouses on the exposed frontiers of southern Indiana. On June 18 the United States declared war against Great Britain, but it did not begin in Indiana until September. On July 17 the British captured the United States post at Mackinaw. On August 15 the Potawatomis defeated and massacred the retiring garrison at Chicago. On August 16 General Hull surrendered Detroit to the British under General Brock, without resistance. These successes inspired the hostile Indians of Indiana to action.

On September 3 a number of Potawatomis attempted to take Fort Wayne by treachery, but were prevented by the opportune arrival of Major William Oliver and two friendly Indians, with warning of danger. The Indians then attacked the fort, which was successfully defended for seven days, when General Harrison arrived with a large force and ended the siege. On September 3 a war-party of 12 Shawnees attacked the Pigeon Roost settlement in Scott County, and killed 20 people, mostly women and children. On September 4, 600 Indians attacked Fort Harrison, which was commanded by Captain Zachary Taylor, later President of the United States. They succeeded in setting fire to the fort, but Taylor, who had only about a dozen men to defend the fort, succeeded in driving them back.

30. The Mississinewa Battle.—The American forces were ready for prompt action. On September 12 Colonel William Russell marched from Vincennes with 1,200 men and relieved Fort Harrison. Other parties went from various points and destroyed Indian villages, but without any fighting. In November General Hopkins marched up the Wabash as far as the mouth of the Tippecanoe, and destroyed all the Indian villages in that region. In December General Harrison sent Lieutenant-Colonel Campbell from Dayton, Ohio, with 600 men to destroy the towns on the Mississinewa. They burned four villages on the 17th and destroyed a large amount of property without much resistance; but on the morning of the 18th they were attacked by about 300 Indians, and a battle ensued, lasting for about an hour before they were driven off. Lieutenant-Colonel Campbell lost 8 killed and 42 wounded in this fight; but his troops suffered much more from the very cold weather, as 300 of them were rendered unfit for duty by being frost-bitten.

In June, 1813, a party of 137 men under Colonel Joseph Bartholomew marched from Vallonia and destroyed the Delaware towns on the White River, but killed only one Indian. Meanwhile General Harrison was moving against Detroit, and in September forced the British to abandon that city and retire into Canada, where Harrison pursued them. On September 10 Commodore Perry captured the British fleet on Lake Erie, and on October 5 General Harrison defeated the British at the Battle of the Thames. The Indians now realized that their cause was hopeless, and on October 14 they met General Harrison at Detroit and made an armistice until July 8, 1814, when they met Harrison at Fort Greenville and concluded a treaty of peace.

In the Territorial period the necessity of preparation for military defence was realized by everybody, and during the War of 1812 the militia system was made very effective. There were over 4,000 men enrolled, and part of them were on duty all of the time, at the blockhouses and in other services. There were also on regular duty from one to five companies of rangers, who were mounted militiamen paid by the United States. These were sent to any point where danger was feared. The army of General

Harrison was chiefly composed of militia from Kentucky, Ohio, and Indiana.

31. Close of the Territorial Period.—After Illinois Territory was cut off in 1809, Vincennes was too far from the centre of Indiana Territory to be a convenient capital. The legislature took up the consideration of a new capital in 1810, but did not agree on one until March 11, 1813, when a law was passed establishing the capital at Corydon from and after May 1, 1813. After the successes of General Harrison's army had removed the fear of the Indians the population of the Territory began to increase rapidly. The people desired to be admitted to the Union as a State, and petitions asking for this were presented to Congress in 1812 and in 1815; but the Territory did not have the 60,000 population required by the Ordinance of 1787 until 1816, when a census showed 63,897. Congress then passed an act to enable the people to form a State government, which was approved on April 19.

THE FIRST STATE CAPITOL AT CORYDON, HARRISON COUNTY.

This law provided that on May 13 the people should elect delegates to a constitutional convention, which was to meet on June 10 at Corydon, and adopt a constitution in accordance with the articles of compact of the Ordinance of 1787. Congress also offered five donations of land to be accepted by the convention, as follows: 1, Section 16 of each township of the public lands for the use of the public schools; 2, all of the salt springs in the State for public use as prescribed by the legislature; 3, five per cent of the receipts from the sales of public lands to be used for roads and canals, three per cent of which was to be expended by the State Legislature, and two per cent by the United States; 4, one entire township for a "seminary of learning" or State university; 5, four sections of land for a State capital. The convention met as provided, and in nineteen days adopted a constitution that was acceptable to Congress, which on December 11, 1816, declared Indiana a State of the Union.

From a photograph copyright by H. J. Friedley.

CONSTITUTIONAL ELM, CORYDON, INDIANA.

CHAPTER IV

THE STATE GOVERNMENT

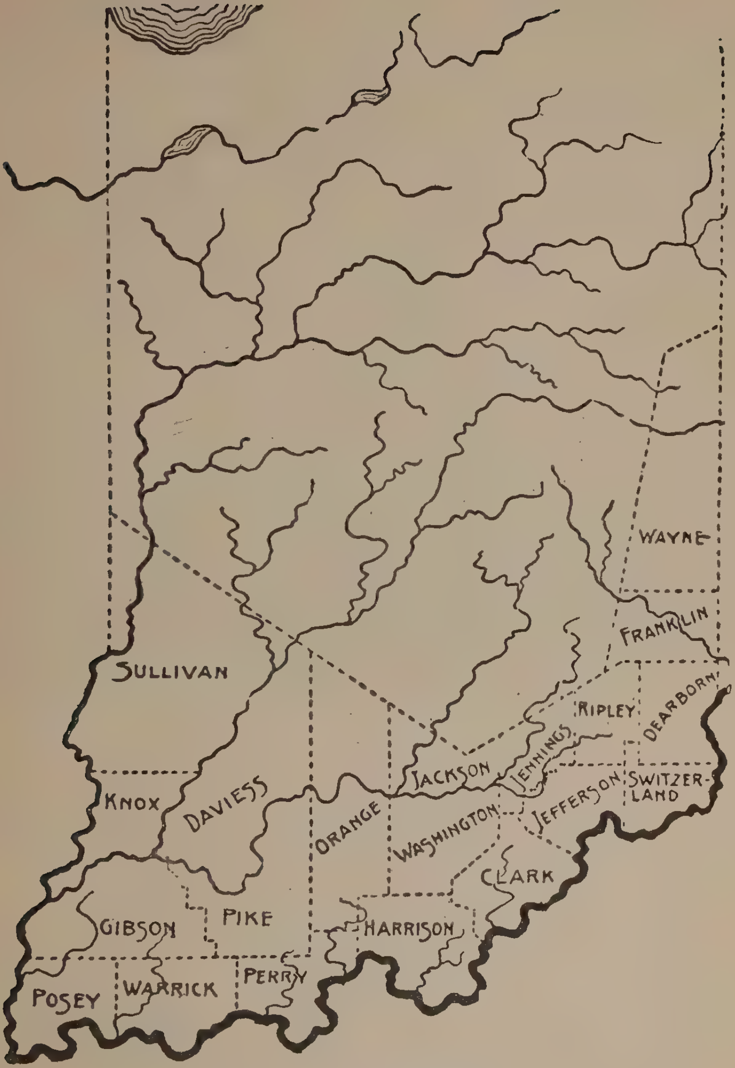
REFERENCES: **Esarey's** History of Indiana; **Hyman's** Centennial History and Handbook of Indiana; **Dunn's** Indiana (second edition).

OUTSIDE READINGS: **McCulloch's** Men and Measures of Half a Century; **General Lew Wallace's** Autobiography; **Cockrum's** The Underground Railroad; **Foulke's** Life of Oliver P. Morton; **Holliday's** Indianapolis in the Civil War, in Indiana Historical Society's Publications, vol. IV; **Esarey's** Internal Improvements in Early Indiana, in Indiana Historical Society's Publications, vol. V.

32. The Constitution of 1816.—At the time of the admission of Indiana to the Union, the system of government prevailing was based on what is now known as "the short ballot"; that is to say, the people elected comparatively few officers and these chose the remaining officers. This system was followed in the first constitution of Indiana. Of State officers the people elected only the governor, the lieutenant-governor, and the members of the legislature. The legislature elected the secretary of state, treasurer of state, auditor of state, and presiding judges of the circuit courts, and could provide by law, as they saw fit, for the selection of all town and township officers. The judges of the supreme court, and all other officers whose election was not fixed by the constitution, were nominated by the governor and confirmed by the Senate. Of local officers the people elected the sheriff, coroner, recorder, and clerk and associate judges of the circuit courts; but no one could be elected clerk unless he had a certificate from a judge of the supreme court, or a president judge of a circuit court, that he was qualified to perform the duties of the office. The militia elected their own officers.

The legislature was given some powers that would be considered extraordinary now. Nobody could be divorced, and no corporation could be created, except by special act of the legislature. The general provisions of the constitution were excellent. All of the great principles of civil and religious liberty were secured. Slavery and involuntary servitude were prohibited. The penal laws were required to be "founded on principles of reformation, and not of vindictive justice." The legislature was required to provide by law for "a general system of education, ascending in a regular gradation from township schools to a State university, wherein tuition shall be gratis, and equally open to all," and was to reserve at least ten per cent of the sales of lots in any new county-seat for a county library. Every twelfth year a vote of the people was to be taken as to whether they desired a convention to amend the constitution. The capital of the State was to remain at Corydon until 1825, and until removed by law. By the provision of the constitutional convention the first State election was held on August 5, 1816; and the first legislature met on November 4, so that the State government was in actual operation before Congress declared the State admitted into the Union.

33. **Banking in Indiana.**—There had been much trouble in Indiana Territory from worthless paper money; and in 1814 the legislature chartered two banks, one at Vincennes and one at Madison, to furnish the people reliable paper currency. The constitution of 1816 provided that no other private banks should be authorized to issue currency, but that the legislature might establish a State bank, or might adopt either the Vincennes or the Madison bank as a State bank. The legislature adopted the Vincennes bank as the State bank, and it established branches at Brookville, Vevay, and Corydon. The hard times of 1818 and 1819 injured these banks, and their failure was made certain by the refusal of the United States Bank to have any dealings with them, because Indiana refused to



MAP OF INDIANA ABOUT 1816.

allow a branch of the United States Bank in this State. The Madison bank, however, paid all its debts and redeemed its currency.

In January, 1834, the legislature chartered a State bank, of which the State took one-half of the stock. The State was divided into ten districts and a branch bank was established in each district. This bank furnished the State with a sound paper currency for twenty-five years. Even in the panic of 1837, when it, like all the other banks in the country suspended specie payments, its notes circulated with very slight depreciation. It also made a handsome profit for the State, which formed the chief basis of our present school fund. The service of this bank was very great, for aside from bank-notes there was little money to be had but silver. Hugh McCulloch, an officer of this bank, who was later called to the office of secretary of the treasury by three different Presidents

STATE CAPITOL ERECTED IN 1835, INDIANAPOLIS.

of the United States, said that he never saw a gold coin in Indiana before 1848, except an occasional one brought in by some foreign immigrant.

But the State bank was in the nature of a monopoly; and the first legislature after the new constitution was adopted, in 1851, passed a "free bank" law, authorizing the issue of circulating notes by private banking companies. These soon flooded the State with worthless paper money, and in 1855 the legislature was glad to charter another State bank, which continued until the national paper currency took the place of State bank currency, at the beginning of the Civil War. Since that time the State banks of Indiana have issued no currency.

PRESENT CAPITOL BUILDING, INDIANAPOLIS.

34. **The New Capital.**—Not less important to the new State than securing a sufficient supply of money, was

the opening to settlement of the Indian lands, which covered two-thirds of the State in 1816. In 1818 a treaty was made with the several Indian tribes by which they sold to the United States all of the lands south of the Wabash River, except a few reservations. The lands then acquired covered about one-third of the State, and were called "The New Purchase." Settlers soon began moving into these lands. A commission of ten men was appointed to select the four sections of land donated by the United States for a State capital; and on June 9, 1820, they selected the present site, which was approved by the legislature on January 6, 1821. By the same act the new capital was named Indianapolis. In the summer of 1821 the central mile square of the city was laid out by Alexander Ralston and Elias Fordham; and the first sale of lots, lasting one week, was held in October.

The property of the State government was moved from Corydon to Indianapolis in November, 1824, by Samuel Merrill, at a net cost $65.55, and in January, 1825, State government began at the new capital. The legislature met in the Marion County court-house, which had just been completed by the aid of the State; and continued to meet there until the new State-house was completed in 1835. Until that time part of the State offices were located in the court-house and the remainder in rented quarters; this State-house was occupied until 1878, when it was torn down to make place for the present State-house, which was completed and occupied in 1888.

35. **Internal Improvements.**—The third great need of the new State was transportation facilities, and this need was greatly increased when the capital was removed to Indianapolis, and the central part of the State began to be settled. Most of the roads were mere passages cut through the woods, which were almost impassable in wet weather. For moving heavy freight the chief reliance of the people was on the streams. Until about 1850 nearly all of the exports from Indiana were sent out in

flatboats, which took their cargoes to New Orleans. Any stream that would float a flatboat in high water was classed as navigable in the early years of the State, and was so declared to be by the legislature. Moreover, such streams were not included in the United States surveys of public lands, and their beds were not sold by the government. Under the laws work was done on them as "highways," just as on the roads, to keep them clear for boats. Indianapolis was located on White River because it was the navigable stream in the central part of the State, and in early times flatboats came down it from as far up as Randolph County. Unfortunately, the Indiana supreme court has obscured the public rights in navigable streams by construing "navigable" to mean navigable for steamboats.[1] The United States has never recognized this construction of its rights reserved by the "articles of compact" in the Ordinance of 1787, which were preserved by the constitution of 1815.

But flatboating was possible for only a few weeks in the year, and transportation was needed all the year round; so the people turned their attention to canals and improved roads. Canals were proving successful in some of the the Eastern States, and no one could give any good reason why they should not be so in Indiana. Railroads were beginning to develop in the Eastern States, but their operation was more expensive than canal transportation where canals could be built. The first step taken was under an act of Congress of March 2, 1827, granting lands to the State for a canal to furnish navigation between Lake Erie and the Wabash River. The work was not actually started until 1832, but it progressed so rapidly and received such favorable reports that the whole State was convinced of the merits of the Wabash and Erie Canal. The National Road was surveyed through Indiana in 1827, but no work was done on it in Indiana until after 1830, when the government constructed sixteen miles east and twelve miles west from Indianapolis. The National Road bridge over White River was built in 1834. The people in those parts of the State which this canal and this road did not reach demanded improvements that would help them.

---

[1] Note 54, *Indiana Reports*, p. 471.

36. The Improvement System Adopted.—In 1836 public opinion was harmonized sufficiently for the adoption of a general internal improvement law. It provided for eight works: (1) A canal through the Whitewater Valley, from Lawrenceburg to Cambridge City, connected by canal or railroad with the Central Canal, for which $1,400,000 was appropriated; (2) the Central Canal, from the Wabash to Indianapolis, and thence to Evansville—appropriation, $3,500,000; (3) an extension of the Wabash and Erie Canal to Terre Haute, with a branch to the Central Canal—appropriation, $1,300,000; (4) a railroad from Madison to Indianapolis and Lafayette—appropriation, $1,300,000; (5) a macadamized turnpike from New Albany to Vincennes—appropriation, $1,150,000; (6) a railroad or a macadamized road from Jeffersonville to Crawfordsville—appropriation, $1,300,000; (7) removal of obstructions from the Wabash River—appropriation, $50,000; (8) a canal from near Fort Wayne to Michigan City.

Fund commissioners were appointed to attend to the finances for this work, and were authorized to borrow $10,000,000 at 6 per cent interest. The people celebrated the passage of the law with great joy; but it was doomed to misfortune. There was delay in commencing work, and the great panic of 1837 came on before it was well under way. By trying to do so much, nothing was finished and put on an earning basis. There was some mismanagement of the funds, and some mismanagement of the work; but it is not probable that even good management would have brought success. In August, 1839, it was realized that the undertaking was hopeless, and the State stopped all work. A part of the work was turned over to creditors, on agreements to finish it; and the State was left with a large debt, and nothing to show for it. The routes selected were desirable, and within the next twenty years nearly all of them were occupied by railroads built by private companies. If the State had undertaken its first railroad from Jeffersonville to Indianapolis, instead of from Madison; if it had undertaken railroads on other lines instead of canals, and, above all, if it had finished one thing at a time and put it on an earning basis, the system would probably have been a success and a source of revenue to the State.

37. The Mexican War.—When war was declared against Mexico, on May 13, 1846, Indiana was wholly unprepared to respond. Militia training had become a mere formality after the War of 1812, and except for one brief call to arms in the Black Hawk War of 1832, there had been no occasion for military service. The State had no militia, no arms, no equipment; but fortunately it had an adjutant-general—David Reynolds—who was equal to the emergency. On May 21 Governor Whitcomb received a requisition for three regiments of volunteers, and on the next day issued the call for them. On June 10 the three regiments were in camp at old Fort Clark, just below Jeffersonville, while twenty-two additional companies were reported in readiness at home. Two regiments were formed from these companies in the next year. When the Indiana troops reached Mexico the First Regiment was put on guard duty in the swampy valley of the Rio Grande. The Second and Third Regiments got into action at Buena Vista, while they were raw and untrained, with inexperienced officers. At Buena Vista, by a confusion of orders, the Second Regiment was ordered to fall back in the face of the enemy. The event got into politics, and the troops were unjustly accused of cowardice. The loss by death to the Indiana troops in this war was 542, but most of these deaths were due to disease and exposure.

38. Call for a Constitutional Convention.—For more than thirty years a majority of the people opposed a revision of the constitution of 1815, and then a change of sentiment came. It was largely a change of sentiment that affected the whole country. Beginning with New Jersey in 1844, new constitutions were adopted in ten States, including Ohio, Illinois, and Michigan as well as Indiana, within a period of seven years. One of the chief causes of this was that the power of the governor and legislature to appoint and elect other officials created a "political machine." Another was that the legislative control of incorporation had become an obstacle to the welfare of the country, as we had reached the period of railroad development, and it was claimed that the granting of railroad and other important charters had become a matter of bargain and sale. A third cause was that the passage of local and special laws took most of the time of the legislature, and even with annual sessions proper attention was not given to legislative business. In Indiana there was a special cause in the demand for a more effective school system. For these causes, and probably some others, the people voted for a constitutional convention in 1849. The convention met October 7, 1850, with one hundred and fifty delegates, and was in session for eighteen weeks. The new constitution was ratified by the voters in August, 1851, and went into effect November, 1, 1851.

39. The Constitution of 1851.—The new constitution required practically all State and county officials to be elected by the people; and prohibited local and special legislation in all cases where general laws could be made applicable. In these reforms many persons think the convention went too far in making judges elective and in prohibiting special charters for cities and towns. It created a permanent school fund and provided for the election of a superintendent of public instruction. It abolished imprisonment for debt, which had been permissible under the constitution of 1815. It permitted banks of issue, which resulted in the disastrous free bank law mentioned above. It forbade negroes and mulattoes coming into the State; and if any should come it made all contracts with them void. This provision was replaced in 1881, through the effects of William H. English and others associated with him, by a section prohibiting municipal debt in excess of 2 per cent of the assessed value of the municipality.

It provided a mode of amendment so difficult that there has never been an amendment adopted, as provided, by a "majority of the electors of the State"; though several amendments have been declared to be adopted at special elections, under the legal fiction that the courts could not tell how many electors there were at the time of such elections. The supreme court also put two other constructions on the constitution that the makers never intended. It held that a local tax could not be levied in support of public schools, because the school system was to be "uniform and general"; and if some places had special school taxes, some children would get more education than others.[1] This decision was reversed twenty-seven years later[2] as it should have been, for the same friends of schools that put the provision in the constitution secured the law that was held unconstitutional. In 1855 a prohibitive liquor law was passed, and the supreme court held it unconstitutional, although the people favored prohibition at the time the constitution was adopted. This would have been changed by amendment if the Civil War had not come on, and turned attention to other things. In 1811, on the recommendation of Governor Marshall, the legislature passed a law submitting to the people a new constitution, which made amendments generally conceded to be desirable, but the supreme court held that this was not within "the legislative authority of the State."

40. Slavery Agitation.—During the ten years, 1850–1860, the whole country was excited over the slavery question. The effects of this controversy were much the same in Indiana as elsewhere, except that it was in closer connection with the chief causes of disturbance than most of the other States. The shortest lines of travel from the slave States to Canada were through Ohio and Indiana; and so many runaway slaves disappeared in Indiana that it was said that, "There must be an underground railroad through the State." In fact there were five routes from the Ohio River over which friends of the slaves helped them to escape through Indiana. These routes finally converged in Michigan, and many escaped slaves passed over them on their way to Canada.

---

[1] Lafayette *vs.* Jenners, 10 Ind., p. 70.

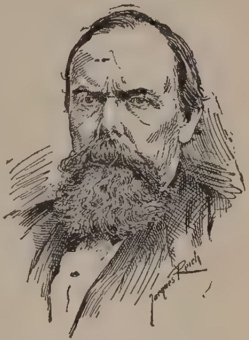
[2] Robinson *vs.* Schenk, 102 Ind., p. 307.

There were also unprincipled men who made a practise of kidnapping free negroes in the Northern States, and selling them into slavery in the South. There were several attempts of this kind in Indiana that were frustrated by appeals to the courts on behalf of the negroes sought to be taken; and these caused general indignation. It is also very probable that a number of free negroes were thus taken secretly before any one came to their rescue. The great mass of the Indiana people had no sympathy with slavery, but there were a number of settlers from the Southern States who took the Southern view of it. The relation of these in number is very well shown in the presidential vote of 1860, which was 139,633 for Lincoln, 115,509 for Douglas, 12,294 for Breckenridge, and 5,306 for Bell. Those who took the Southern view of slavery voted for Breckenridge.

41. The Civil War.—There were few persons who anticipated that civil war would result from the slavery question; and even after South Carolina had inaugurated the plan of secession in December, 1860, there were nearly four months of effort to reach a peaceful settlement of the controversy before Fort Sumter was fired on, on April 12, 1861, and war was inevitable. When President Lincoln called for 75,000 volunteers, on April 15, 1861, Indiana was as little prepared as at the beginning of the Mexican War. Altogether there were nine or ten militia companies in the State—chiefly the result of a fancy of young men for zouave drill—which went out as the Eleventh Indiana

Regiment. There were a number of Turner societies that practised military drill, from which a German regiment was later formed. The State had not enough arms for a single additional regiment and no ammunition. The National Government was not prepared to furnish either.

But Indiana had in Oliver P. Morton a governor who was a man of action. On the 16th the *Journal* announced: "Governor Morton has sunk party distinctions, and yesterday appointed to the important post of adjutant-general of the State Captain Lewis Wallace of Montgomery County, a prominent Democrat, and widely known for his military zeal and skill." It also stated that recruiting was progressing rapidly. On the 17th the first company went into camp at Camp Morton; and within a week the six regiments asked from Indiana were mustered in and being drilled. But they were without arms. On April 24, on call of Governor Morton, the legislature convened in special session, and voted a war loan of $2,000,000. On May 30 Robert Dale Owen was commissioned to purchase 6,000 rifles and 1,000 carbines. On June 11 the last of the three months' regiments left for the front.



OLIVER P. MORTON.

There was no slacking of this activity while the war continued. By January 1, 1862, Indiana had 60,000 men in the field—53,500 infantry, 4,500 cavalry, and 2,000 artillery. During the war the State furnished a total of 196,363 men for the Union Army, and 784 paid the legal charge for exemption. On this basis Indiana supplied 74.3 per cent of her men fit for military service, by the census of 1860, which was surpassed only by Delaware. The credit to Delaware is 74.8 per cent, but one-tenth of this was in exemption payments, and nearly one-tenth of the Delaware troops were colored. On the basis of white troops for the three years' service, Indiana sent 57 per cent of her military population of 1860; and this was exceeded only by Kansas, with 59.4 per cent. Kansas was then a frontier State, and her total of troops furnished was less than one-tenth of the Indiana total. Of the Indiana troops 7,243 were killed or mortally wounded in battle, and 19,429 died from other causes, making a death loss of nearly 14 per cent of the troops furnished.

42. Special Services Rendered.—Governor Morton's activities were not confined to raising troops. They must be armed, uniformed, and furnished with ammunition. Robert Dale Owen's commission was extended, and he purchased arms, equipment, blankets, and overcoats to an amount of nearly $900,000. Ammunition could not be bought, and Morton decided to make it. Beginning in rented quarters, in April, 1861, this work proceeded so well that in June it was moved to a new building on the square north of the State-house. The State arsenal was continued until replaced by a government arsenal in 1864. It supplied the Indiana troops and many others with ammunition.

In October, 1861, Governor Morton issued an appeal to the patriotic women of Indiana to furnish underwear, gloves, and other articles not supplied to soldiers by the government, and large contributions were received. Following this came his organization of the General Military Agency and the Indiana Sanitary Commission in 1862, through which the whole population were brought into organized work for the soldiers. In November, 1862, Governor Morton issued an appeal to the people for aid to the families of soldiers, and Soldiers' Aid Societies were formed everywhere. The people vied with one another in their gifts, and the amounts of the collections ran into millions. The county governments of the State paid over $20,000,000 in bounties and relief to soldiers and their families during the war. On account of political complications the legislature of 1863 adjourned without making any appropriations, and Governor Morton took the responsibility of conducting the State government for the next two years; but in the spring of 1865 the legislature levied a tax of three mills on the dollar, and a poll tax of one dollar for the relief of soldiers' families. After the close of the war the State established a Home for Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans at Knightstown. In 1890 the National Government established a National Soldiers' Home at Marion. In 1894 the State established a State Soldiers' Home at Lafayette.

43. **Captain Eads and the Gunboats.**—In addition to all this aid to the Union cause there was a special service rendered by a native of Indiana which is a matter for pride to the State. In 1861 there was a demand for light-draft armored gunboats, for use in streams of the Mississippi Valley, and Captain J. B. Eads was called to Washington for consultation on the subject. On August 5, 1861, bids for seven gunboats were opened, and Eads was not only the lowest bidder, but also agreed to have them ready in sixty-four days, which was much the shortest time proposed. He got the contract, and within two weeks had 4,000 men at work at various points; but his enormous task was not finished on contract time, because the government did not meet its payments on contract time, and Eads had to furnish money as well as materials and labor. But the seven boats were launched within one hundred days, and performed their first great service by reducing Fort Henry, on February 6, 1862. These were the first armored vessels ever built in the United States, and the first to encounter hostile fire on this continent. The *Merrimac* went into action on March 8, 1862.

Eads was next called on for another gunboat larger than these, and in April, 1862, for six gunboats made wholly of iron, with turrets as on the *Monitor*. He built these, and put on one of them machinery for handling a large cannon by steam-power, by which it could be fired seven times as fast as under the old system. This was the first application of steam to this use. He also built four mortar-boats, and seven armored transports, commonly called "tinclads," because their light armor was proof only against musket-balls. These vessels made possible the opening of the Mississippi and other rivers by the Union Army. It has been estimated that the service of one of his gunboats was equal to that of 5,000 men. Captain Eads afterward built the St. Louis bridge, and made the jetties at the mouth of the Mississippi River.

44. **Treasonable Organizations.**—While the great majority of the people of Indiana were thoroughly loyal, there were organizations known at various times as Knights of the Golden Circle, and Sons of Liberty, which became treasonable, although they were originally organized under a plea of self-protection. Governor Morton kept close watch of them through detectives who were members of the orders, and "played with them as a cat with a mouse"[1] until he was ready to expose them, in the summer of 1864. Five of the leaders were then arrested and convicted of treason by a military court; but the judgment was overruled by the Supreme Court of the United States, on the ground that they should have been tried in an ordinary criminal court.[2] These organizations were never really dangerous, for "there was not an instant in which they were not securely within the grasp of the war governor";[3] but it is probable that Southern leaders were led to believe that there was a large amount of disloyal sentiment in the State, and that this was in part the cause of its invasion.

45. **Morgan's Raid.**—Indiana had been invaded twice in a small way. In 1862 a small party of Confederates from Kentucky crossed the Ohio at Newburg, in Warrick

---

[1] Foulke's *Life of Morton*, vol. I, p. 374.

[2] *Ex parte* Milligan, 4 Wallace, p. 2.

[3] Foulke's *Life of Morton*, vol. I, p. 374.

County, and after a little plundering escaped across the river before any active resistance could be made. In June, 1863, Captain Thomas H. Hines, with a small force of cavalry, crossed the river at Cannelton, and did some plundering; but they were run down and captured. In July, 1863, General John Morgan, who had been sent by General Bragg to make a raid through Kentucky, violated his orders and crossed the Ohio at Brandenburg, with nearly 2,500 men. He moved rapidly through southern Indiana, looting stores and destroying property unless the owners paid ransom. He took all horses of any value. But if he had any expectation of a sympathetic reception he was soon convinced of his error. There were few soldiers in the State, and Governor Morton called for volunteers. Within two days 20,000 had enlisted at Indianapolis, and twice that number had sprung to arms elsewhere. Morgan was met with armed resistance on all sides. He made his way into Ohio, where most of his force was captured. On July 15 Governor Morton issued a proclamation thanking the militia and volunteers, saying: "This wonderful uprising will exert a marked effect throughout the country, exhibiting, as it does, in the strongest and most favorable light, the military spirit and patriotism of our people."

46. The Spanish-American War.—On April 25, 1898, at 6.15 P. M., President McKinley's call on Indiana was received for four regiments of infantry, two light batteries, and a signal-corps company of the National Guard, for the war with Spain. Governor Mount at once issued his call for the troops to assemble at the State Fair Grounds. At 5 o'clock the next morning the first company arrived from Frankfort, and climbed the fence to get into the rendezvous. Before night all the companies were in camp. Under the President's second call, of May 25, Indiana was asked for one more regiment, a company of engineers, and two colored companies, which were promptly raised. In these organizations there were 7,421 officers and men.

None of these troops were engaged in battle, though the Twenty-seventh Battery was on the firing-line in Porto Rico and about to go into action when news of peace arrived, and hostilities were discontinued. The One Hundred and Sixtieth and One Hundred and Sixty-First Regiments were part of the army of occupation of Cuba.

47. **Present Indiana Militia.**—In January, 1916, the National Guard of Indiana was composed of two regiments, two separate battalions, two separate companies, three batteries, one signal-corps company, one field-hospital company, and one ambulance company, with a total of 2,809 officers and men. The United States has an army post—Fort Benjamin Harrison—near Indianapolis, where a regiment of regulars is stationed and where the annual encampments of the National Guard are held.

CHAPTER V

A CENTURY OF DEVELOPMENT

REFERENCES: **Cottman and Hyman's** Centennial History and Handbook of Indiana; **Esarey's** History of Indiana; **Dunn's** Indiana (second edition); **Conklin's** Young People's History of Indiana; **Moore's** A Century of Indiana; **Boone's** History of Education in Indiana; **Smith's** History of Indiana.

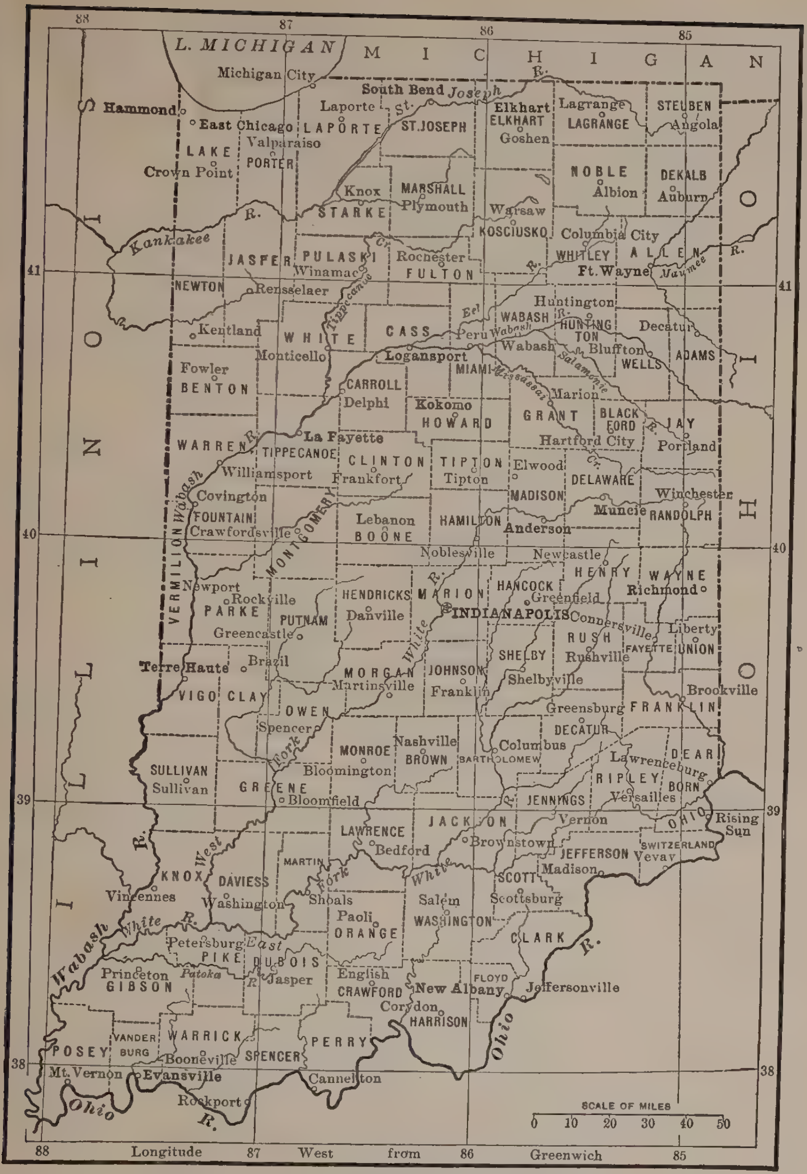
OUTSIDE READINGS: In My Youth (anonymous); **Turpie's** Sketches of My Own Times; also the following papers in the Indiana Historical Society's Publications: **Duncan's** Old Settlers; **Ferguson's** Reminiscences of a Journey to Indianapolis in 1836; **Howe's** Making a Capital in the Wilderness; **Esarey's** Internal Improvements in Early Indiana; **Henry's** Some Elements of Indiana's Population.

48. Population and Development.—The immediate cause of the physical, social, and economic development of a new country is the increase of population, and it is not easy to realize now what was the population of Indiana a century ago. In 1800 the population within the present boundaries of the State was about 2,500, or less than half that of the smallest county in the State at present. In 1816 the population had grown to 60,000—about equal to that of Clark, Jefferson, and Switzerland Counties now. If one could imagine all the people removed from the State in those three counties, and their people scattered through the southern one-third of the State, he would have an idea of the small population at that time.

These people had come to Indiana to make homes in the wilderness, and it was no easy task. The central and southern parts of the State were covered by heavy forests, and these had to be removed before crops could be planted. It was something like the work of the coral insects making a reef. Chip by chip, tree after tree, the settlers had to cut their way into the forests, until they had their clearings made and their cabins built and were ready to begin the work of farming. With all this hard labor there was often lack of food, medicines, and other necessities of life. They had to rely on their own efforts, sometimes almost as much as Robinson Crusoe on his desert island. How they met some of their obstacles is described by Judge Banta as follows:

49. Labor of the Pioneers.—"With his sharp axe the pioneer could not only cut the logs for his cabin and notch them down, but he could make a close-fitting door and supply it with wooden hinges and a neat latch. With axe and auger or 'burning-iron,' from the roots of an oak or ash he could fashion his hames and sled-runners. He could make all his whiffletrees, stock his ploughs, make or half-sole his sled, make an axletree for his wagon if he had one, make a rake, a flax-brake, a harrow, a scythe-snath, a grain-cradle, a pitchfork, a loom, a reel, a winding blades, a wash-board, a stool, a chair, and, at a pinch, a table, a bedstead, a dresser, and a cradle in which to rock the baby. If he was more than ordinarily clever he repaired his own cooperage, and, adding a drawing-knife to his kit of tools, he even went so far as to make his own casks, tub, and buckets. But he usually patronized the cooper and always the blacksmith, the tanner, and the wheelwright. He had little use for the shoemaker, because he made and mended all his own shoes; and less for the fuller and tailor, because his wife spun and wove all the cloth and cut and made all the clothes; and scarcely any at all for the house carpenter, because with his axe he could do about all the carpenter's work the fashion of the times required."

The women had quite as much labor as the men, for in addition to the ordinary housekeeping, cooking, and care of the children, and the spinning, weaving, sewing, and quilting, it fell to them to make lye-hominy, soap, candles, and to collect and preserve the plants that formed a large



MAP OF PRESENT-DAY INDIANA

part of the primitive medical supplies. It is natural that such a life should stimulate ingenuity, originality, and self-reliance, and possibly to it may be due some part of the character of their descendants. Of course, there were some things that a man could not do alone, such as raising a building and harvesting, and for anything of that kind he could always call on his neighbors. A man who would not help his neighbor had no standing in early Indiana.

50. Early Roads.—As all the roads in central and southern Indiana were through the forest, the first thing was to cut the road. Public roads were usually cut 48 feet wide. Trees 18 inches or more in diameter were required to be cut to 12 inches above the ground, and smaller trees to the surface of the ground. Low and swampy places were corduroyed or "crosswayed" by laying small logs close together, crosswise the road, and covering them with dirt. Such roads became very bad in wet weather, and all heavy teaming had to be done in very cold or very dry weather. Years passed before there were any really good roads in the State. The first one was the National Road, on which most of the work done in Indiana was done after 1830. But for the use of flatboats on the streams, the people could not have got their produce to outside markets.

51. The Coming of Railroads.—There was no satisfactory mode of transportation in the interior of the State until the coming of railroads. Railroads had been talked of for several years, but the first track actually laid in Indiana was a mile and a quarter at Shelbyville, which was constructed by the Lawrenceburg and Indianapolis Company in 1834. It was not made like the railroads of to-day. The builders first laid timbers, 6 by 8 inches, and 20 feet long, lengthwise the road, and covered them with earth. On these the cross ties were laid; and on these wooden rails. The road was opened on the Fourth of July, and the report of the event says: "In the course of the day between six and eight hundred persons were passed upon the road by one car, a distance out and in of two and one-half miles. One horse was found able to draw from forty to fifty persons at the rate of nineteen miles per hour, and this when all the work, both of car and road were new and rough." On the railroads on which locomotives were used, strips of bar iron were fastened on top of the wooden rails.

The first railroad that brought effective relief was the Madison and Indianapolis, which was completed to Indianapolis in 1847. It caused an immediate increase in the value of farm products in central Indiana, and was so prosperous that it stimulated railroad-building throughout the State. In 1850 there were 142 miles of completed road in addition to the 86 miles of the Madison and Indianapolis. In 1860 the mileage had increased to 2,125.75. The Bellefontaine (Cleveland Division of the Big Four) was completed from Indianapolis to Union City in 1852; and the Terre Haute and Indianapolis (Vandalia) and the Indianapolis and Lafayette in the same year. The Lawrenceburg and Indianapolis and the Indiana Central (Indianapolis to Richmond) were completed in 1853, and in September, 1853, the Union Station in Indianapolis was opened. The Peru and Indianapolis was completed in 1854; the Fort Wayne and Chicago in 1856; the Toledo, Wabash and Western and the Ohio and Mississippi in 1857. After the Civil War there was another era of railroad-building. In 1916 there are 7,232 miles of main track in the State, and only two counties, Ohio and Switzerland, are not reached by railroads, and both of them have river transportation.

52. Electric Railroads.—The interurban or electric railroads were of much later date. Electricity was first used for city street-car lines in Indiana in 1890, in Lafayette and Indianapolis. On January 1, 1898, the first interurban car in the State ran from Anderson to Alexandria. On January 1, 1900, the first interurban car went over the Indianapolis and Greenwood line—now the Indianapolis, Columbus, and Southern. On January 4, 1901, the first car entered Indianapolis over the Muncie line. In 1916 there are 2,085 miles of interurban roads in the State, which have caused a material revolution in travel and the transportation of light freight.

53. The Pioneer Schools.—The provisions for education in the Ordinance of 1787 and the constitution of 1815 were much more imposing than the schools that existed under them. They presented ideals which the people hoped to attain, but which were not reached for many years. The first schools of which there is any record or tradition were at Vincennes; one taught by Bishop Flaget in 1792, and the other taught by the Abbé Rivet in 1796. Judge Banta found evidence of a school in Dearborn County in 1802; and one near Charlestown, in Clark's Grant, in 1803. The pioneer settlers were too widely scattered and too poor to maintain schools; and in the earliest period if children received any education they received it at home. As population increased school privileges improved, especially where towns were formed.

Where schools were established, even long after the admission of the State to the Union, they were very rude affairs as compared with the present schools. The schoolhouses were log buildings, as were the houses of the people, heated by open fireplaces. Window-glass was an expensive luxury, and its place was commonly supplied by greased paper, which had the advantage of preventing the pupils from looking out, while it let some light in. Seats and desks were made of puncheons (split logs) made as smooth as possible. Pens were made of quills. The only things that called for money were the books and the teacher, and it was not easy to raise what was needed for them. But boys and girls who desired education usually found some way to learn. Abraham Lincoln was not the only boy in early Indiana who studied by the light of an open fire after his day's work was done.

54. The Free Schools.—Although the constitution of 1815 provided for free schools, there were none in the State until after the constitution of 1851 established the Common School Fund. Before that time the funds available for public schools were seldom more than enough to provide for the erection of school buildings; and the common practise was for the school trustees to arrange with some teachers to take the building and admit pupils at a fixed rate; so that while these schools were "public" they were pay schools. There were also many private schools that were very useful in the work of education. A law passed in 1818 provided for county seminaries, which were much like our high schools, and in the course of twenty-five years fifty of these were established, on the same basis as the other schools, with free buildings and paid tuition. In the same period there were established an equal number of private institutions for higher education, variously known as academies, seminaries, and colleges.

GRAVE OF NANCY HANKS LINCOLN, MOTHER OF ABRAHAM LINCOLN, LINCOLN CITY, SPENCER COUNTY.

But while this system gave opportunity for education to those who could afford it, there were many children who did not go to school at all. By 1840 the State stood sixteenth in illiteracy of the twenty-six States. Every other Northern State, and three Southern States, ranked higher than Indiana. In 1850 Indiana had dropped to twenty-third in the same list, with nearly one-fifth of her people illiterate. It was the presentation of such facts as these by Caleb Mills and other friends of education that roused the people to action, and caused the change in the constitution in 1851. But the Common School Fund is a permanent fund, and only the interest can be used for school expenses; so that when in 1858 the supreme court decided that special school taxes could not be levied, the schools were put in nearly as bad condition as before, until the people decided to ignore this foolish decision. In 1916 the Common School Fund of Indiana is $11,785,212, but the expenditure for free schools in Indiana in the year 1914–1915 was $22,846,991, or twice as much as the entire permanent fund. Nearly all of this vast amount was raised by taxation. In 1897 a law was passed requiring that all children of school age should go to school at least twelve weeks in each year; and if any child does not have suitable clothing and books, these are provided at public expense.

55. **Influence of New Harmony.**—In the year 1814 a religious, socialistic community of Germans came to Posey County and founded the town of Harmonie, now New Harmony. They were called Rappites, from their leader Frederick Rapp. They were very industrious, and soon had well-tilled farms, and produced manufactured goods valued at over $200 daily. In 1824 they sold their possessions to Robert Owen of Scotland, and removed to Economy, Pennsylvania. Owen sold half of the Indiana property to William Maclure, of Philadelphia, who joined with him in establishing a new community, which, while it maintained industrial pursuits, was more devoted to intellectual progress.

Among the numerous intelligent people who joined the new community was Joseph Neef, a pupil of Pestalozzi, who brought to the United States the Pestalozzian system of instruction—the basis of our manual training and nature study. The New Harmony community had the first free schools in the State. They also had the first kindergarten, the first infant school, the first trade-school, and the first school to offer equal advantages to boys and girls. Their schools affected other schools by their example, and some of the best teachers in the State came from New Harmony. It was such a centre of scientific learning that it was made the headquarters of the United States Geological Survey of the Mississippi Valley. All of the State geological work of Indiana up to 1891 was done by New Harmony men.

HOUSE BUILT BY RAPPITES AT NEW HARMONY IN 1822.

56. The State University.—In 1806 the Territorial Legislature chartered Vincennes University, which was then intended to become the State university; but after the admission of the State, the legislature, in 1820, established the State Seminary at Bloomington, which became Indiana College in 1828, and Indiana University in 1838. The first building was erected in 1824, and the seminary opened with ten boys as students. The financial support of the institution was small, and it was not until 1886 that the number of students exceeded two hundred. It was made coeducational in 1867. As the number of graduates increased, most of them being men of influence in various parts of the State, the support of the university was improved until it became in fact what it was in name. The attendance in 1915 was 2,644.

With all the departments of a university, and with a combined faculty of over 200 members, Indiana University offers every opportunity for education that could be asked. In its beautiful campus of 125 acres are ten large and substantial buildings in which the work of education is conducted. It has a large and well-selected library. Its student body includes representatives of every county in the State, as well as many from other States and foreign countries. Up to the present it has conferred about 6,000 degrees on its graduates. The president of the university is William Lowe Bryan.

57. Indiana State Normal School.—In 1865 the legislature provided for the establishment of a school for the training of teachers for the common schools of the State. On account of donations offered by Terre Haute it was located there; and the school opened January 6, 1870, with thirteen young women and ten young men as students. Its early years were not very encouraging; and in 1888 the original building and its contents, including the library, were destroyed by fire. This misfortune seemed to give it a new life. Terre Haute gave $50,000 for reconstruction, and the State $100,000. Since 1889 four large new buildings have been added, and the school now has a library of 65,000 volumes. In addition to the theoretical education of teachers, the students have in the last year a course of observation and practise, which gives them actual experience in teaching. The school has had a marked effect in increasing the efficiency of the common schools of the State. For thirty-one years William Woods Parsons has been president of the normal school.

58. Purdue University.—In 1862 Congress passed a law donating public lands to States that would establish colleges especially for instruction in agriculture and mechanic arts. Indiana accepted the donation on March 6, 1865, and received 390,000 acres of land, from which was realized $340,000. To secure the location of the college at Lafayette, John Purdue gave $100,000; Tippecanoe County $50,000, and the people of West Lafayette 100 acres of land. The school opened in 1874, and has received support from both State and the United States, as well as numerous gifts from various persons who have appreciated its usefulness. The practical instruction to farmers in its extension work has been of very great benefit in the improvement of agriculture in the State in all its branches; and Purdue is recognized as one of the best engineering schools in the country. It is well supplied with laboratories, greenhouses, library, dairy, and all the desirable accompaniments of such a school. The president is Winthrop Ellsworth Stone.

59. Religious Influences.—As a rule, the early settlers of Indiana were of a sober, industrious character, and largely religious. There was little here to attract adventurous or speculative characters except an occasional sale of town lots, and speculative fever of that kind seldom lasted long. The early French settlers were Catholics, and their only church was at Vincennes. The first Protestant churches were organized in Clark's Grant—Baptist in 1798, and Methodist in 1803. The earliest Presbyterian church was organized near Vincennes in 1806; and the first Quaker church at Richmond in 1807. Of these early sects, the Presbyterians and Quakers gave the most attention to schools.

The first great influence of the churches on education was through the Sunday-schools. At the first convention of the Indiana Sabbath-School Union, in 1827, their purpose, in addition to religious influence, was declared to be "paving the way for common schools, and serving as a substitute till they are generally formed." At that time there were said to be 2,000 children of the State in Sunday-schools, while the remaining 48,000 were "growing up in great ignorance and thus preparing for great wickedness." In these schools the youngest children were taught the alphabet, and then spelling and reading, while the older memorized verses, hymns, and catechisms. From the first the Sunday-schools were furnished with libraries, which supplied most of the reading-matter in many places and most of the juvenile reading everywhere. Books were loaned to the pupils as rewards for good work in the schools. Many persons who were not church-members joined in this work. There were probably 2,000 Sunday-schools in the State in 1850.

The next important influence of the churches was on higher education. In 1826 the Presbyterians arranged with Reverend John Finley Crowe, who had a school at South Hanover, to open a classical school for educating young men for the ministry. The school was opened on January 1, 1827, as Hanover Academy, later Hanover College. Wabash College was opened in 1833 as a non-sectarian Christian college. The Baptists established Franklin College in 1835. The Methodists opened Asbury University (now DePauw) in 1840. The Catholic University of Notre Dame was established in the winter of 1842–1843. The Society of Friends opened Earlham College as a boarding-school in 1847. This was the first coeducational college in the State. Butler College was opened in 1855 as Northwestern Christian University, under the auspices of the Disciples, or Campbellites. It was coeducational from the start. There are many private institutions of learning, of later date, that have contributed to the work of public education.

60. Public Libraries.—Although there were provisions for public libraries in the first constitution and in the early laws, there were few established for half a century that were of permanent value. The school law of 1852 provided for township libraries, the books for which were bought by the State. The State expended $273,000 for books, and for a few years everybody in Indiana was well supplied with reading-matter. But no provision was made for new books, or for care of the libraries; and by the close of the Civil War there were few of them in effective service. At his death, William Maclure, of New Harmony, bequeathed $500 to every working men's association that had collected a library of 100 volumes, for the increase of the library. Beginning in 1855, these bequests were received by 144 associations, scattered through 89 of the 92 counties of the State; but, with no provision for their care or increase, they also lasted but a few years.

The present public-library system began in 1899, when, through the efforts of the women's clubs of the State, the legislature created the Public Library Commission to encourage the formation of local libraries and to manage the travelling libraries. At that time there were 52 public libraries in the State. In 1916 there are 190 tax-supported public libraries and 4 supported by endowment or subscription. There are now but seven counties in the State in which there are no public libraries, and in four of these there are movements in progress for the establishment of libraries. Much of the progress made is due to the generosity of Mr. Carnegie. There are 130 public libraries in the State that have Carnegie buildings, besides five branch libraries in Indianapolis, three in Evansville, and two college libraries—DePauw and Earlham. The total of these Carnegie gifts is $2,097,000 for public-library buildings, and $80,000 for college-library buildings.

61. Manufactures.—Until the introduction of railroad transportation Indiana was almost exclusively an agricultural State, manufacturing only for home consumption. Aside from the products of sawmills, grist-mills, tanneries, distilleries, and breweries, almost the only manufactures were the individual work of carpenters, blacksmiths, saddlers, and other artisans, and the spinning and weaving of the pioneer women. In 1849 the total manufactured product of the State was valued at $18,725,000. In 1869 it was $100,000,000. In 1909 it was $579,075,000. The central location of the State gives it an advantage for distribution of products that has caused many manufacturing plants to be located here which otherwise would have gone elsewhere.

62. Natural Resources.—The forests of Indiana were largely destroyed to make farms. A large amount of the timber was used for lumber, rails, fire-wood, and other purposes, but probably half of it was burned to get rid of it. In consequence we are now beginning to give attention to reforesting. Coal was mined in a small way in Territorial times; but coal-mining did not become an important industry until after 1870. At present the output is about 20,000,000 tons, and over 20,000 people are engaged in the coal industry. Natural gas was struck in paying quantities in 1886. It caused a great increase in manufacturing industries for a few years; but so much was wasted that the supply is now of comparatively small importance. The first oil-well in Indiana was drilled in 1889, and the industry has extended until now the product exceeds 500,000 barrels annually. Building stone of various kinds is abundant in Indiana, and has been used from the earliest times. Quarrying it has developed into a great industry since the Civil War; and especially so as to the celebrated oolitic limestone. Clays are abundant, and have always been used for brick. The manufacture of tile, pottery, and terra cotta, which reaches a value of $3,000,000 annually, is of much more recent date. The same may be said of a number of other minerals that are found in smaller quantity.

63. The Name "Hoosier."—About the year 1830 there was a fad of giving nicknames to the people of different States, such as "Buckeye" to a resident of Ohio, and "Sucker" to a resident of Illinois. At that time the appellation "Hoosier" was conferred on the people of Indiana. Its first known use in print was in the Lawrenceburg *Palladium* of July 30, 1831; but it was first made popular by John Finley's poem, "The Hoosier's Nest," which appeared as a carrier's address of the *Indianapolis Journal*, January 1, 1833. In its earliest use the word was commonly spelled "Hoosher," or sometimes "Hooshier." The common stories about it being derived from "hussar," "husher," "who's here?" "who is yer?" etc., have no foundation in fact. The word "hoosier" was a slang term in common use in the South at the time, used to denote an uncouth rustic. It was probably a corruption of the Cumberland, England, dialect word "hooser," which means something unusually big, or overgrown. Applied to Indiana in jest, the term has been adopted by the people of the State, and is now held with a feeling of pride and affection.

64. Indiana Literature.—The people of Indiana take a just pride in the literary men the State has produced, especially when the youth of the State is considered in comparison with the Eastern States. A few years ago the *National Magazine*, published at Boston, took a vote of its readers on the question: "Who is the greatest living author?" Of the thousands of votes cast, only twenty-two authors were voted for; and it so happened that eleven of these were Americans, and eleven were foreigners. Of the eleven Americans voted for, three were natives of Indiana, and the other eight were scattered in other States. The three natives of Indiana were James Whitcomb Riley, General Lew Wallace, and Joaquin Miller. Without enumerating scores of less distinguished Indiana writers, the State can claim a worthy contribution to English literature, in its first century, in the writings of these three men alone.

65. Social Development.—It should be remembered that literary production is only one manifestation of intellectual and social development, and that Indiana has produced numbers of men and women who have been prominent in science, art, commerce, and various departments of public life. But individual development is very largely due to individual genius, and is no reliable index of the development of a people. A more convincing evidence is seen in the fact that from the humiliating standing in illiteracy in 1850, Indiana has advanced until, in 1910, no other State east of the Mississippi River had so small a percentage of illiterates as Indiana. This advance was chiefly due to the improvement in public schools; but it was also due in part to the general increase of wealth and the vast improvement of facilities for communication and transportation.

At the same time and due to the same causes, there has come a general social development in all lines. For example, Indiana's system of charities and correction is universally conceded to rank among the best in the United States, both in theory and in practise. The reason is that the system is based on the realization that the treatment of the dependent, defective, and immoral classes which produces the best results from the standpoint of public welfare, is the same as that which is dictated by the highest consideration for the welfare of the individual. On a similar basis are our public efforts for sanitation and health, our regulation of child labor, our laws for the protection of children, and other laws. But most conclusive of the State's general development is the fact that the mass of the people are ready and eager for improvement in all lines—ready to "prove all things; hold fast that which is good."

GOVERNORS OF INDIANA

TERRITORIAL

Years	Name	Native State
1800–1811	William Henry Harrison	Virginia.
1811–1813	John Gibson	Pennsylvania.
1813–1816	Thomas Posey	Virginia.

STATE

Years	Name	Native State
1816–1822	Jonathan Jennings	New Jersey.
Sept.-Dec., 1822	Ratliff Boone	North Carolina.
1822–1825	William Hendricks	Pennsylvania.
1825–1831	James Brown Ray	Kentucky.
1831–1837	Noah Noble	Virginia.
1837–1840	David Wallace	Pennsylvania.
1840–1843	Samuel Bigger	Ohio.
1843–1848	James Whitcomb	Vermont.
1848–1849	Paris Chipman Dunning	North Carolina.
1849–1857	Joseph Albert Wright	Pennsylvania.
1857–1860	Ashbel Parsons Willard	New York.
3 months, 1860	Abram Adams Hammond	Vermont.
2 days, 1861	Henry Smith Lane	Kentucky.
1861–1867	Oliver Hazard Perry Throck Morton	Indiana.
1867–1873	Conrad Baker	Pennsylvania.
1873–1877	Thomas Andrews Hendricks	Ohio.
1877–1881	James Douglas Williams	Ohio.
1881–1885	Albert Gallatin Porter	Indiana.
1885–1889	Isaac Pusey Gray	Pennsylvania.
1889–1891	Alvin Peterson Hovey	Indiana.
1891–1893	Ira Joy Chase	New York.
1893–1897	Claude Matthews	Kentucky.
1897–1901	James Atwell Mount	Indiana.
1901–1905	Winfield Taylor Durbin	Indiana.
1905–1909	James Franklin Hanly	Illinois.
1909–1913	Thomas Riley Marshall	Indiana.
1913–1916	Samuel Moffett Ralston	Ohio.

COUNTIES AND COUNTY-SEATS OF THE STATE OF INDIANA

Counties	Pop. 1910	Organized	No. Twp.	County-seats	Pop. 1910
Adams..........	21,840	1836	13	Decatur........	4,471
Allen...........	93,386	1824	20	Fort Wayne....	63,933
Bartholomew....	24,813	1821	14	Columbus......	8,813
Benton..........	12,688	1840	11	Fowler.........	1,491
Blackford.......	15,820	1839	4	Hartford City...	6,187
Boone..........	24,673	1830	12	Lebanon.......	5,474
Brown..........	7,975	1836	5	Nashville.......	354
Carroll..........	17,970	1828	13	Delphi.........	2,161
Cass............	36,368	1829	14	Logansport.....	19,050
Clark...........	30,260	1801	12	Jeffersonville....	10,412
Clay............	32,535	1825	11	Brazil..........	9,340
Clinton.........	26,674	1830	14	Frankfort......	8,634
Crawford........	12,057	1818	9	English........	583
Daviess.........	27,747	1817	10	Washington.....	7,854
Dearborn........	21,396	1803	14	Lawrenceburg ..	3,930
Decatur.........	18,793	1822	9	Greensburg.....	5,420
Dekalb..........	25,054	1837	14	Auburn........	3,919
Delaware........	51,414	1827	12	Muncie........	24,005
Dubois..........	19,843	1818	12	Jasper.........	2,196
Elkhart.........	49,008	1830	16	Goshen.........	8,514
Fayette.........	14,415	1819	9	Connersville....	7,738
Floyd...........	30,293	1819	5	New Albany....	20,620
Fountain........	20,439	1826	11	Covington......	2,069
Franklin........	15,335	1811	13	Brookville......	2,169
Fulton..........	16,879	1836	8	Rochester......	3,364
Gibson..........	30,137	1813	10	Princeton.......	6,448
Grant...........	51,426	1831	13	Marion.........	19,359
Greene..........	36,873	1821	15	Bloomfield... ..	2,069
Hamilton........	27,026	1823	9	Noblesville.....	5,073
Hancock........	19,030	1828	9	Greenfield......	4,448
Harrison........	20,232	1808	13	Corydon.......	1,703
Hendricks.......	20,840	1824	12	Danville........	1,640
Henry..........	29,758	1822	13	Newcastle......	9,446
Howard.........	33,177	1844	11	Kokomo........	17,010
Huntington......	28,982	1834	12	Huntington.....	10,272
Jackson.........	24,727	1816	11	Brownstown....	1,492
Jasper..........	13,044	1838	13	Rensselaer......	2,393
Jay.............	24,961	1836	12	Portland.......	5,130
Jefferson........	20,483	1811	10	Madison.......	6,934
Jennings........	14,203	1817	11	Vernon.........	453
Johnson.........	20,394	1823	9	Franklin.......	4,502
Knox...........	39,183	1790	10	Vincennes......	14,895
Kosciusko.......	27,936	1837	17	Warsaw........	4,430
Lagrange........	15,148	1832	11	Lagrange.......	1,772
Lake............	82,864	1837	10	Crown Point....	2,526

Counties	Pop. 1910	Organized	No. Twp.	County-seats	Pop. 1910
Laporte	45,797	1832	18	Laporte	10,525
Lawrence	30,625	1818	10	Bedford	8,716
Madison	65,224	1823	14	Anderson	22,476
Marion	263,661	1822	9	Indianapolis	233,650
Marshall	24,175	1836	10	Plymouth	3,838
Martin	12,950	1820	10	Shoals	1,015
Miami	29,350	1834	14	Peru	10,910
Monroe	23,426	1818	12	Bloomington	8,838
Montgomery	29,296	1823	11	Crawfordsville	9,371
Morgan	21,182	1822	14	Martinsville	4,529
Newton	10,504	1859	10	Kentland	1,209
Noble	24,009	1836	13	Albion	1,213
Ohio	4,329	1844	4	Rising Sun	1,513
Orange	17,192	1816	10	Paoli	1,278
Owen	14,053	1819	13	Spencer	2,150
Parke	22,214	1821	13	Rockville	1,943
Perry	18,078	1814	7	Cannelton	2,130
Pike	19,684	1817	9	Petersburgh	2,170
Porter	20,540	1836	12	Valparaiso	6,987
Posey	21,670	1814	10	Mt. Vernon	5,563
Pulaski	13,312	1840	12	Winamac	1,607
Putnam	20,520	1822	14	Greencastle	3,790
Randolph	29,013	1818	12	Winchester	4,266
Ripley	19,452	1818	11	Versailles	486
Rush	19,349	1822	12	Rushville	4,925
Scott	8,323	1820	5	Scottsburgh	1,669
Shelby	26,802	1822	14	Shelbyville	9,500
Spencer	20,676	1818	9	Rockport	2,736
Starke	10,567	1850	9	Knox	1,644
St. Joseph	84,312	1830	13	South Bend	53,684
Steuben	14,274	1837	12	Angola	2,610
Sullivan	32,437	1817	9	Sullivan	4,115
Switzerland	9,914	1814	6	Vevay	1,256
Tippecanoe	40,063	1826	13	Lafayette	20,087
Tipton	17,459	1844	6	Tipton	4,075
Union	6,260	1821	6	Liberty	1,338
Vanderburgh	77,438	1818	8	Evansville	69,647
Vermillion	18,865	1824	5	Newport	732
Vigo	87,930	1818	12	Terre Haute	58,157
Wabash	26,926	1835	7	Wabash	8,687
Warren	10,899	1827	12	Williamsport	1,243
Warrick	21,911	1813	10	Boonville	3,934
Washington	17,445	1814	13	Salem	2,283
Wayne	43,757	1811	14	Richmond	22,324
Wells	22,418	1837	9	Bluffton	4,987
White	17,602	1834	11	Monticello	2,168
Whitley	16,892	1839	10	Columbia City	3,448

gartka
czołg ~~półg~~ysg

85
66

INDIANA EDITION
PRICE 80 CENTS